The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 27, 1890.

The Week.

THE "World's Fair in New York" has been killed so many times during the past sixty days that one killing more or less does not signify. The mourners must now be very much in the mood of an undertaker's hired man: they have mourned so often that they can relish a pipe and a good glass of beer after the funeral. The only ones to be really pitied are the winners of the World's Fair. These are the Chicago men. They have now got to shoulder an expenditure of at least $10,000,000. They have a subscription in hand of about four millions, not more than one-half of which is collectible. The State Constitution forbids them to incur any city indebtedness beyond 5 per cent. of the valuation for State taxes. This limit is already reached. If they raise the valuation for World's-Fair purposes, they raise it for State-taxing purposes also. The Constitution also forbids any city in Illinois to give any pecuniary aid to any private corporation for any purpose. In fact, the city of Chicago is tied up much tighter in this regard than the city of New York. Whatever money is raised must be subscribed by individuals as a donation or a speculation. We wish Chicago every kind of success. We think, however, that she will sicken of her prize before the end of a week, unless she resolutely cuts the Fair down to the size of her purse. This she can do and must do, but the result will be much inferior to the Paris Exposition of last year.

That national politics had much to do with the defeat of New York in the House of Representatives we have no doubt. But it is unfair to put all the blame on Platt, or on Platt and Quay. The Republican party are naturally shy of any job having money in it when they cannot see clearly how it is to be spent. The two-thirds amendment adopted at Albany did not entirely satisfy them. After all is said and done, the city officers of New York are Democrats, and the city's money must go through Democratic hands first. Ten millions is a large sum. A small percentage of it would go a great way in a campaign. An active imagination would magnify the dangers in the eyes of Republican Congressmen, and an active imagination is what they are much blessed with at the present time. New York's Democratic majority is the great bugbear of the party. They cannot endure the thought of its having any more pabulum and means of subsistence, lest it should grow larger in 1892. While they cannot see clearly the channels of disbursement of the ten millions, they say to themselves that it is safer to have the Fair somewhere else than in New York. It is not likely that the result would have been different if Platt and Quay had kept hands off, or if they had never been born. Of course in all this the Republicans were looking at the small sides of the next Presidential campaign, but only the small sides are visible to them now.

Why did the drafters of the World's Fair Bill try to conceal its principal motive? The practice of concealing the object of bills, a favorite one with jobbers and speculators, has been forbidden, or reprobated, at least, by section 16 of article iii. of the Constitution, which says: "No private or *local* bill which may be passed by the Legislature *shall embrace more than one subject, and that shall be expressed in the title*"; and by section 20 of the same article, which says "every law which imposes, continues, or revives a tax shall distinctly state the tax and the object to which it is to be applied, and it *shall not be sufficient to refer to any other law to fix such tax or object.*" Now, any one who had heard nothing of the agitation about the Columbus Fair might, we affirm, read this Fair Bill from beginning to end without a suspicion that it was meant simply to provide for the holding of a six months' fair on a certain portion of Manhattan Island. What does this concealment mean? Why did the preamble to the bill not say boldly that, for the purpose of holding a Columbus Fair in 1892, the city was to issue $10,000,000 in bonds, and have power to condemn an indeterminate area of private property? Was it not because the drafters doubted the constitutionality of their scheme if set out in plain terms, and therefore felt the necessity of evading the constitutional restrictions by indirection, vagueness, and obscurity?

These are the questions which the sober and sensible portion of the public wishes to have answered. They are questions which the newspapers, had they done their duty to the public, would have pressed home at the outset. Any answer to them would explain why it is the bill was never allowed to see the light before it was presented to the Legislature; why its passage was asked for without debate; why no discussion of it has been attempted or permitted by its supporters in or out of doors during its passage; why its journalistic advocates have not ventured on any manly examination of its provisions during the past four weeks; why Mr. Carter's criticism cut so deeply into its vitals; and why it has gone down to Washington a disgrace to the city and to the State and to the newspaper press. No man who cares for his reputation, either personal or professional, likes, if he can help it, to get up openly and defend a subterfuge, a make-believe, a sham, a pretence, or an evasion. This is why it has been passed, not by discussion, but by hullabaloo. Happily there are courts in New York which will do for this shameful measure what the Legislature and the newspaper press ought to have done. We do not profess to know whether it is constitutional or not, but we do know that appearances are against it; that it has been passed under circumstances which make it a discredit to free government. No tribe of barbarians would enact a law of such importance with so little attempt at deliberation or persuasion. It is only despots and mobs who reach decisions affecting public and private rights in this fashion. A State which made a practice of such legislation should have for its coat-of-arms fifty old hats in the air, and "Let her rip" for its motto.

In his memorandum of reasons for approving the World's Fair Bill, Gov. Hill took occasion to establish a precedent for himself for use in vetoing the Fassett Rapid-Transit Bill in case that ever reaches him. He did it, in a decidedly characteristic manner, in the following passage:

> "The measure does not violate the principle of 'home rule,' nor is it inconsistent with correct principles of legislation. The Commissioners designated in the bill are expressly declared therein to be those 'heretofore selected by the Mayor of the city of New York.' (See section 4.) This is a proper recognition of the principle that commissioners to carry out local improvements, or to disburse moneys of a municipality, should be selected by the local authorities themselves, and not by the Legislature. I have for several years uniformly refused my approval of measures in which this principle has been ignored."

The Governor was perfectly well aware when he wrote this that, in selecting the Fair Commissioners, the Mayor was not acting in his official capacity, but as chairman of an informal meeting of a body of citizens who had no existence known to the law. To say of Commissioners so named that their selection is a recognition of the principle of home rule, is a kind of legal reasoning peculiar to our unique Governor.

Nearly a fortnight has passed since the following remarkable confession appeared in a leading editorial article of the New York *Tribune*:

> "Many people fancy, because Gov. Hill carried New York when President Cleveland was defeated, that a plurality of the voters in the State would support him again. *But in that contest, as people here well know, Hill succeeded only because he was able to sell a Presidency for a Governorship.* If he ever puts himself where the other people have a chance to do the selling, he will get a measure of his popularity.'

Such a statement from such a source naturally attracted national attention. It was nothing less than a confession that the Republicans had bought the Presidency for Harrison by selling the Governorship to Hill. The language is so explicit as to leave no doubt of the writer's meaning. It says that "Hill succeeded *only* because *he was able* to sell a Presidency for a Governorship." That means that the sale was consummated, with equal guilt on both sides. The statement was not made in an off-hand paragraph, but in the leading editorial article of the day, which is understood to give expression to the paper's most well-considered views. It appeared on Friday, February 14, and though it has been commented upon

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since from one end of the country to the other, no attempt to explain or modify or retract it has been made by the *Tribune*. Another newspaper has volunteered the opinion that the statement was "nothing more than an empty phrase tossed off from the point of an inconsiderate and irresponsible pen," but the *Tribune* is the only authority competent to make that explanation, and it has refrained from offering it. So long as it remains silent, explanations of any sort from outside sources are of no value.

The Joint Committee on High License of this city, which has led in the agitation for a high-license law during the past three years, has submitted a bill for the consideration of the Governor and the Legislature which was introduced by Senator Hendricks on Thursday. It places the minimum fee for full liquor license at $300 and the maximum at $500 in cities, and at $100 and $200 respectively in towns. The beer and wine fee is placed at not less than $60 nor more than $150 in cities, and not less than $40 nor more than $100 in towns. Hotel licenses are from $100 to $500 in cities and from $75 to $250 in towns. Store licenses for sales in packages, and not to be drunk on the premises, are graded from $75 to $250 in cities and from $50 to $150 in towns. The druggist fee is placed at $20. This is very moderate high license, and there is no reason save "politics" why the State should not be given the benefit of it. There is, however, slight prospect of this or any other bill becoming a law.

The Joint Committee give, in their memorial, the following reason for New York's failure to secure wise restrictive temperance legislation:

> "It is now clear enough that New York remains behind the other States of the Union in salutary legislation on this great and vital subject, not because a majority of her citizens are not wise and virtuous enough to favor it, but because the pride and jealousy of parties, bad leadership, or discordant factions, prevent the true friends of good laws from coming together and giving effective expression to their common wishes. This state of things cannot long continue, but, so long as it remains, the best citizenship of New York will be both misrepresented and dishonored, and corruption, arising from the liquor traffic, will more degrade the party politics of the State."

No, that is not the real explanation of the condition of affairs. The true explanation was much more tersely given by the New York *Tribune* on the 14th of February, when it said of the election of 1888, when Warner Miller was running on the high-license issue: "In that contest, as people here well know, Hill succeeded only because he was able to sell a Presidency for a Governorship." There can be no high-license or other restrictive temperance legislation hoped for in this State so long as Gov. Hill is in office, and he was put into office by the Republican managers because, in the language of the *Tribune*, "he was able to sell a Presidency for a Governorship." It was not "pride and jealousy of parties" which prompted that sale, but greed of office which impelled the Republican managers to buy the Presidency at any price.

The Democratic managers have concluded to carry to the Supreme Court, at the earliest possible opportunity, the question whether the new rule allowing the Speaker to count a quorum, and thus permitting the passage of a bill by the votes of less than a majority, is in accordance with the Constitution. Such a question could not be submitted to the courts in New York, or New Jersey, or Pennsylvania, or Illinois, or California, or many other States which have adopted new constitutions or amended old ones during the last quarter of a century, because the constitutions of those States require the affirmative votes of a majority in each house to pass a bill. The Constitution of the United States does not contain this provision, but the practice during the first century of Congress was such that the minority could always enforce the principle if they chose to insist upon it. The wisdom of the plan has been abundantly demonstrated in all of the States which have adopted it, and it will be most unfortunate if the Supreme Court decides that the nation can no longer have this needed check upon party legislation.

The Philadelphia *Press* and other high-tariff organs are trying to make a great tariff victory out of the defeat of Mr. Ayres in the late Judge Kelley's district in Philadelphia on Tuesday week. But what are the facts? Mr. Ayres ran as an out-and-out tariff-reformer, with free wool as the foremost plank of his platform. He ran in a district which had for years chosen to Congress a leader among the protectionists, and in a city in which the Republican organization is perfect, while the Democrats are so disorganized that, through local disaffection, their vote at the election last November fell off nearly 50,000 as compared with the vote of the year before. In the face of all this the Republican plurality last Tuesday was kept down to 8,384, as compared with 9,639 in 1888 and 11,509 in 1886, and Mr. Ayres polled 1,400 votes beyond his party strength. The *Press* itself testifies to the discouraging circumstances under which the Democratic campaign was conducted when it says, "The 33,000 votes cast for William J. Eagan for Magistrate show how serious is the split in the Democratic party in this city." When an out-and-out tariff-reformer can make a campaign like this in such a stronghold of protection as Philadelphia, the vitality of the reform cannot be doubted.

No one thing has more disturbed the subsidy-hunters than the publication and extensive circulation by the New York Reform Club of Mr. Wells's address on "The Decline of our Mercantile Marine—Its Cause and its Cure." The *American Economist* has been particularly anxious to break the force of Mr. Wells's arguments and figures, and has recently made a labored effort to refute his statement that, notwithstanding a large increase since 1883 in the facilities for trading with the West Indies, Mexico, Central and South America, through the establishment of new lines of steamers, our exports to these countries declined in the six years from 1883 to 1888 to the extent of 12½ per cent. The New York *Commercial Bulletin* has, however, made a careful investigation of this matter, and, as a result, says that Mr. Wells is entirely right in his conclusions, and that the *Economist* has either "blunderingly compiled its figures or failed to examine the statements it undertook to criticise." The *Bulletin* backs up its assertions by abundant evidence from the latest reports of the Bureau of Statistics.

Assistant Postmaster-General Clarkson says he is going to retire in a few days, because he will then have made practically a "clean sweep" of the Democratic postmasters, and there will be nothing left for a statesman of his school to do. This is the shameless way in which this Iowa spoilsman talks: "I have very nearly served out my sentence. I was sent up for a year against my own protest, but I agreed to serve that time to help the Administration. I think if I had been treated in the same way as ordinary prisoners I should have got some reduction on account of good behavior, don't you? Here I have changed 31,000 out of 55,000 fourth-class postmasters, and I expect to change 10,000 more before I finally quit. I expect before the end of the month to see five-sixths of the Presidential postmasters changed. Then I can paraphrase old Simeon, and say: 'Let thy servant depart in peace.'" The Administration which Clarkson agreed to "help" by thus making a clean sweep, is the Administration constituted by the President who, as candidate, gave the people his solemn pledge that fidelity and efficiency should be the sure tenure of office, and that only the interests of the public service should suggest removals from office.

In the course of his three weeks' speech in favor of the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy," Mr. Blair made an appeal to Southern Senators to vote for the scheme, on the ground that they could thus get some money out of the Federal Treasury as an offset to the large amount they pay into the Treasury to be distributed among pensioners in the North. The Southern press indignantly repels this open attempt to bribe the Southern people into supporting a measure. "This argument," says the Savannah *News*, "will not make friends for his bill in the South. The bill must be considered on its merits. Will it be helpful or harmful to the South? That is the question which the Southern people ask with regard to it. If they believed that it would be harmful, they would not favor it, though the amount which it proposed to distribute in the Southern States each year were ten times $7,000,000."

The deadlock in the Iowa Legislature, which has lasted nearly six weeks, was ended last week by an arrangement under which the Democrats get the Speakership, and the Republicans the control of the most important committees. For the first time, therefore, in over thirty years this old-time "banner Republican State" has a Democratic

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Speaker, and a Democratic Governor will immediately be inaugurated. The Republicans must now make up their minds what they will do about prohibition. They can maintain the existing law if they choose, or they can allow the substitution of a local-option-law system. Whichever they do, they are pretty sure to get beaten in the next election, for the State will declare against prohibition again if it gets a chance; and, on the other hand, many Republicans will desert the party unless it maintains prohibition.

President Eliot of Harvard gave utterance to some very sound observations upon journalism and schools of journalism in a recent speech in Philadelphia. Because he observed that newspapers were occasionally careless about the character of the men whom they employed as reporters, he was made the victim of a distorted and false report of his remarks, in which he was charged with having made a "bitter attack on the press," and upon the "personal character of reporters employed upon the Boston newspapers." He was compelled to make public denial that he had done anything of the kind, and to explain what he had really said as follows:

"I remember saying that, from my personal experience, I knew that insufficient care was exercised in that respect, and that I thought it was a great injury to the press and to the profession of newspaper men as a class. Then I illustrated that by saying that in one year four men who were dismissed from Harvard for disgraceful offences, not for college pranks, were immediately employed upon newspapers. That was the moral of my remarks—that more care was needed on the part of the managers in the selection of their younger men. Everything that I said tended to the dignifying and elevating of the journalistic profession and not to its lowering."

The treatment to which some reporter in Philadelphia subjected this moderate and accurate statement was the best possible evidence of its truth. He sent to the Boston *Herald* a report in which he represented President Eliot as saying that "the men who are employed as reporters in Boston were drunkards, thieves, deadbeats, and bummers," and as being roundly rebuked for his utterance by one of his own graduates. It is very evident that the *Herald* has been careless in regard to the character of its correspondent in Philadelphia.

What President Eliot said about "Schools of Journalism" is in entire harmony with what has frequently been expressed in these columns. As restated by himself in his enforced explanation, it was:

"My first point was, that I believed the right training for an editorial writer was a thorough training in writing English, and in history, political economy, and modern languages, and that this training could be had in any college with an elective system. Therefore, I thought that the degree of B.A. was better for a journalist than the degree of a special school. Some of the colleges, as you know, have started schools of journalism. I do not believe in them. I believe the right training for a journalist is a thorough training on the lines I have mentioned above."

Here are some interesting facts from the correspondence of the *Evening Post* for legislators who are constantly seeking to check "speculation" by the enactment of laws, showing as they do how certain speculation is to check itself when it is overdone, or when it is conducted in violation of sound business methods. Seats in the Chicago 'Change have fallen in value $3,700 since 1882, and grain speculation is so dull there that many firms are talking of retiring. In the Pittsburgh Oil Exchange, where a few years ago the excitement ran as high as it does in the liveliest times in Wall Street, a day passed recently without a sale; and the fine Exchange Building is to be sold, that the members may find more modest and less expensive quarters. The correspondents give some of the reasons for all this, which all point in one direction, viz., the control of the markets by vast concentrated capital, which can so determine the immediate supply as to eliminate that other factor which was once worth considering—the genuine demand. The ruinous results of vast wheat and oil "deals" in recent years have been much more potent to check "speculation" than any legislation could be, no matter how cunningly devised.

A report comes from the Panama Canal Commission, by way of Paris, that the Commissioners find that only three-tenths of the work has been done, that it is impossible to make a sea-level canal at that place at all, that a canal with two locks only will cost $140,000,000 in addition to what has been spent already, and that it will be best to construct it with six to eight locks. As these facts were over and over again proclaimed by American engineers who visited the works during the lifetime of the Lesseps enterprise, it is probable that the report published by the *Gaulois* is authentic. There was a sudden fall in Panama shares on the Paris Bourse about the time that the Canal Commission arrived in this country on their return, and this may be taken as another sign of authenticity.

It is becoming a very serious question in European politics whether France and England will accede to the German Emperor's suggestion for a joint conference on the labor question. According to the Paris *Temps*, the French Cabinet will not take part in it unless England does. It is tolerably plain that England will not do so, because England, by virtue of her free-trade policy, now has the whip-hand of Europe in the contest for industrial supremacy. The *Economist* discusses the question from the business man's point of view, and shows that what Germany wants is some foreign aid to help her out of difficulties that her protectionist policy has plunged her into. She has fenced out foreign competition from her own borders, but has crippled herself in foreign markets at the same time. The Emperor wants to lessen the hours of labor and otherwise improve the condition of factory operatives, but the owners tell him that they cannot. If any new expenses are put upon them, they must shut up their shops. Then the benevolent and rather soft idea occurs to him that if Germany's competitors would agree to work fewer hours and charge more for their goods, the matter might be easily arranged. Hence the invitation to the labor conference. But, says the *Economist*, each country wants nothing so much as to get an advantage over the others.

"When the rival Powers understand that they are being asked to lighten the weight of toil from German shoulders and to give their fighting opponent a little breathing space, they are certain to say No—'You ask us to assist you to win the race by altering conditions which disturb you worse than they do us, but that is what we cannot and will not do. We want to beat you, not to help you to beat us.'"

The German Emperor's first step in the walks of independence has not been such as to encourage him. The elections for members of the Reichstag have resulted in a large increase of the Socialist vote and of the Socialist membership. Whatever may have been the Emperor's motives for the recent rescripts on the labor question, they have not led the Socialists to transfer any of their political strength to the side of conservatism. On the contrary, they have rallied with greater confidence than ever to the support of Bebel and Liebknecht. What thoughts are uppermost in the mind of Prince Bismarck at this juncture we may perhaps faintly conceive. The Chancellor has ruled Prussia and Germany for a quarter of a century upon the principles of personal government as distinguished from parliamentary government. A wise despotism has been his ideal of political greatness and social security. Arbitrary power, lodged in the hands of the strong man whose sole aim is the prosperity and elevation of his country, is the keystone of his system. It is a system which requires a continued succession of strong men in the right place. It requires not only a succession of Bismarcks, but a succession of Williams. The strong man must always have the support of the wise and confiding Emperor. If one or the other of these fails to appear in due time, the system is in instant peril, and when such peril comes, the consequences are enormous. But Bismarcks are among the rarest products of this world. Not more than one or two in a century are to be looked for among all civilized nations. A wise and confiding Emperor is a much more frequent phenomenon; but the system itself is exactly calculated to produce self-confidence in Emperors, and to cripple or eliminate the strong man even when he appears.

Opposed to this system is the one which teaches a nation to rely upon itself. Parliamentary government does not necessarily dispense with Emperors and Kings; still less does it dispense with the strong man. On the contrary, it supplies means by which the strong man, when Providence sends us one, shall be in his right place, at the head of public affairs. Imperialism in Germany is on trial. Most people have believed that the trial would not come till Bismarck should have passed away. It is fitting that it should come before.

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THE WINNING ISSUES OF 1890.

THE turning-point of the politics and the prosperity of the United States, near the close of the nineteenth century, is the present control of the House of Representatives by the Republican party for the first time, with the exception of one Congress, since 1875. Beginning with the election of 1860, to provide for the expiration of Buchanan's term, the Republicans have inaugurated seven Presidents and the Democrats only one; but from the assembling of the House on July 4, 1861, to March 4, 1889, the Democrats have controlled the House during six Congresses of twelve years, and the Republicans during eight Congresses of sixteen years. Since July 4, 1861, Grow, Colfax, Blaine, Keifer, and Reed have been the Republican, Kerr, Randall (six years), and Carlisle (six years) the Democratic Speakers of the House. From the assembling of Congress in 1875 to its assembling in 1889, a period of fourteen years, the Democrats controlled the House during all except two years.

During the Forty-fifth Congress, 1877-79, the Democrats had forty-two Senators, the Republicans thirty-three, and the Independents one. In the next Congress, the relative numbers were the same, but in the next thereafter, 1881-83, the Democrats and Republicans were equal; there were outside of them one Readjuster Democrat and one Independent. In the Forty-ninth Congress, the Republican Senators were forty-two, the Democrats only thirty-four, and now, there being eighty-four Senators (two seats from Montana to be filled), the Republicans have forty-five and the Democrats thirty-seven. In 1891 the terms of twenty-eight Senators (twelve Democrats and sixteen Republicans) will expire, and in 1893 the terms of twelve Democrats and fifteen Republicans. The term of Mr. Evarts will expire in 1891, and that of Mr. Hiscock two years afterwards. Mr. Sherman's term in Ohio will expire in 1893. The terms of the two Republican Senators from Connecticut will end, one in 1891 and one in 1893. Not till the changes in 1895 can Democrats hope to control the Senate, even with the most favorable and winning issues.

During no year since 1860 have Democrats controlled executive and legislative power as Republicans now control, and during no year since 1875 have the Republicans had the power they now have over Federal laws and the Federal Treasury—currency, finance, taxation, surplus, and debt. All the while, excepting one Congress, since the last-named year have Democrats in the House been able, by good rules and good tactics, to prevent bad and plundering legislation coming from the Senate or from anywhere else; but now the barrier has been effectually removed. There is nothing between the taxpayers and the deep sea of extravagant expenditure and extravagant taxation.

To the present House were elected 169 Republicans and 161 Democrats. The last House had 153 Republicans, 169 Democrats, 2 Independents, and 1 vacancy. Nothing can be expected to change the character of the present Congress. The country must lie in the bed it made last November. But the voting for a new House will be next autumn.

Are Democrats, and especially such Democratic leaders in the House (where taxation must originate) as Mr. Carlisle and Mr. Mills, thinking of that, and the issues on which victory can be had? Why did Democrats lose, in November, 1888, the present House? In which States did the loss or gain occur? The changes were in the following States:

States.	Fifty-first Congress.		Fiftieth Congress.	
	Rep.	Dem.	Rep.	Dem.
Connecticut	3	1	1	3
Illinois	13	7	14	6
Indiana	3	10	7	6
Iowa	10	1	8	3
Kentucky	2	9	3	8
Louisiana	1	5	..	6
Maryland	2	4	1	5
Massachusetts	10	2	8	4
Michigan	9	2	6	5
Minnesota	5	..	2	3
Missouri	4	10	2	12
Nebraska	3	..	2	1
New Hampshire	2	..	1	1
New Jersey	4	3	5	2
North Carolina	3	6	2	7
Ohio	16	5	15	6
Pennsylvania	21	7	20	8
Tennessee	3	7	2	8
Virginia	2	8	6	4
West Virginia	..	4	1	3
Total	116	91	106	101

What is the significance of that tabular statement? Why did not the Democratic party, having the executive department in its hands, increase very largely last November its majority in the House? Why did it, on the contrary, lose two members in Connecticut, two in Iowa, one in Louisiana, one in Maryland, two in Massachusetts, three in Michigan, three in Minnesota, two in Missouri, one in Nebraska, one in New Hampshire, one in New Jersey, one in North Carolina, one in Ohio, one in Pennsylvania, and one in Tennessee? All signs now indicate that the conduct of Harrison and of the Treasury, and the doings of the House, if kept up during the present session, will easily give to the *outs* power over the next House; but will the *outs* carry the Presidential election? That will largely depend on the issues formulated by the Democratic leaders during the present session? In politics, as in war, the successful assault on an enemy in position is easiest at the point of least resistance. In the tariff struggle, as an illustration, have Mr. Carlisle and Mr. Mills, and the other Democratic leaders in Congress, selected *that* point, and are they organizing a vigorous onset? Are they, leaving all minor things and minor phases of the tariff to take care of themselves, thinking of the McKinley bill, and free raw materials for our manufacturers, the taxation of which materials tends to strangle manufactures at their birth?

NEW YORK'S CHANCES FOR ELECTORAL REFORM.

IF it were not for Gov. Hill's obstruction, there would be no doubt whatever that the State of New York would secure this winter the enactment of two laws which would bring about the most thorough reform in election methods enjoyed by any American State. Both measures have been introduced in the Legislature by Senator Saxton, and they are both the most carefully drawn of their kind known as yet to American Legislatures. The first is the Ballot Bill, which, while similar in its main principles to the bills vetoed by Gov. Hill in previous years, has been revised and strengthened in the light of experience afforded by the practical operation of a similar law in Massachusetts. This bill was passed by the Senate on Wednesday week under such circumstances as to give hope of its passage in that body over a veto in case the Governor persists in his antagonism. It received the solid Republican vote and also the vote of two Democratic Senators. A third Democratic Senator, who has heretofore fathered Gov. Hill's bogus opposition measure, refrained from voting, on the ground that, as a believer in ballot reform, he did not wish to go on record in opposition even to a measure whose provisions he did not entirely approve. The entire Republican vote together with that of the two Democratic Senators makes a total only one short of the necessary two-thirds required for passage over a veto. There is good reason for believing that the popular demand for the reform will impel at least one other Democratic Senator to favor the Saxton bill when the issue is squarely made between that and no legislation.

The principal changes which Senator Saxton has made in his bill are, first, the grouping of all candidates by parties; and second, requiring the voter to erase the names of all candidates save those for whom he wishes to vote. A separate blank column is provided in which the voter can write the names of such candidates as he chooses in case none of those in the printed lists meet his approbation. Objection has been made to these changes that in various ways they will facilitate strict party voting. It is said that when a voter can indicate his choice by merely striking out all columns of names save those of his own party, the brief time required for this operation will be a sufficient indication that he has voted "straight." It is also said that the blank column affords opportunity for the use of "blanket pasters" which may be got up in the interest of "deals" and other corrupt combinations, and which voters may use instead of voting any of the regular tickets. To both these objections the best answer that can be made is that given by Mr. Henry A. Richmond, in an excellent address upon the scope and need of the reform which he delivered recently in Buffalo. "This reform," he said, "is not instituted for the purpose of encouraging any particular kind of

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voting, but for the purpose of enabling the voter to cast his vote uninfluenced either by intimidation or by corruption; and when this result is obtained, how he votes—whether a straight ticket or for independent candidates—is his own matter, and the ticket should be so arranged that he will be able to select the names of the persons for whom he desires to vote with as little trouble as possible."

The great ends aimed at by the ballot-reform movement are the isolation of the voter while preparing his ballot, and the use of no ballots save those provided by the State and distributed in the polling-place on the day of election. When these are attained, no briber can follow a voter to the polls to see how he votes. If he takes note of his time in marking his ballot, he may infer that he has voted a straight ticket, but he cannot tell whether it is the ticket of one party or another. If he gives him a paster, he can have no proof that he has used it. When no ballots can be used save those provided at the public expense, there will no longer be excuse for "assessments" upon candidates or requests for contributions from the rich men of the party for campaign funds. These are the primary objects of ballot reform, and they will have been accomplished in this State when the Saxton Ballot Bill has become a law.

Mr. Saxton's second bill, which is modelled upon the English Corrupt Practices Act, will give us another and no less important reform, but it cannot be of service till the official secret ballot is secured. When the excuse for assessments and campaign funds has been removed, we can then forbid by law the corrupt use of money in elections and can enforce the law. That is what Mr. Saxton's second bill is designed to do, and it seems to be admirably adapted for the purpose. It is in the form of an amendment to the Penal Code, and makes it unlawful for any person, directly or indirectly, by himself or through any other person, to influence in any possible manner, either by bribery, loan, persuasion, promise of money, or office, or any thing of value, the vote of another It also makes it unlawful for a voter to submit to such influence, either in voting or refraining from voting. The specifications are drawn with great minuteness, and cover every possible form of bribery or influence—betting, intimidation, coercion, or restraint, or threats of reduced wages by employers, and all the other familiar methods. After election every candidate is required to file a sworn account of all moneys expended by him, or for him by any one else, in the election. The provision on this point is one of the strongest that have been put in any bill of the kind yet drawn in this country. It reads:

"Every candidate who is voted for at any public election held within this State shall, within ten days after such election, file as hereinafter provided an itemized statement, showing in detail all the moneys contributed or expended by him, directly or indirectly, by himself or through any other person, in aid of his election. Such statement shall give the names of the various persons who received such moneys, the specific nature of each item, and the purpose for which it was expended or contributed. There shall be attached to such statement an affidavit subscribed and sworn to by such candidate, setting forth in substance that the statement thus made is in all respects true, and that the same is a full and detailed statement of all moneys so contributed or expended by him directly or indirectly, by himself or through any other person in aid of his election. Candidates for offices to be filled by the electors of the entire State, or any division or district thereof greater than a county, shall file their statements in the office of the Secretary of State. Candidates for all other offices shall file their statements in the office of the Clerk of the county wherein the election occurs."

The penalties are very severe, as it is most important they should be:

"Whosoever shall violate any provision of this title, upon conviction thereof shall be punished by imprisonment in a county jail for not less than three months nor more than one year. The offences described in this act are hereby declared to be infamous crimes. When a person is convicted of any offence mentioned in section forty-one of this act [all forms of bribery or influence] he shall, in addition to the punishment above prescribed, forfeit any office to which he may have been elected at the election with reference to which such offence was committed; and when a person is convicted of any offence mentioned in section forty-one a [being bribed] of this act, he shall, in addition to the punishment above prescribed, be excluded from the right of suffrage for a period of five years after such conviction. Any candidate for office who refuses or neglects to file a statement, as prescribed, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, punishable as above provided. And, if such candidate be elected, he shall, in addition to such punishment, be suspended from the duties and deprived of the emoluments of his office until the proper statement shall be filed."

There is not, as in the English act, a limitation fixed for campaign expenditures, above which no candidate can go; but while this was considered of importance when put into the English act, practical experience has shown that sworn publication of all expenditures has made it unnecessary. The limit has seldom been reached by any candidate, being on an average one-third higher than actual expenditures.

The unanimous passage of this bill by the Senate on Thursday foreshadows its equally easy passage by the Assembly. The Governor is also committed in its favor, and even if he were to invent excuses to veto it, the prospect appears to be good for its passage over a veto. It is, of course, a far more formidable measure for Gov. Hill and his Tammany allies than the Ballot Bill.

THE NEBRASKA RATE PROBLEM.

JUST what results the Senate expects from its recent resolution on Western corn rates is not very clear. After alleging that the great region east of the Rocky Mountains is unable to obtain actual cost of production for its food products on account of excessive freight rates, it is resolved that the Inter-State Commission investigate whether this allegation is true or not, whether any section of the Inter-State Law is responsible for the situation, and whether a more stringent enforcement of the law would remedy the evil. That opens the whole question of the public regulation of railroad tariffs. Should the law be modified or more stringently enforced? Not a small part of the difficulties of the Inter-State Commission consists in formulating opinions on such a problem as is here presented.

The confusion in the public mind is illustrated by the fact that the petitions presented to the Senate from Nebraska are directly opposed to each other. One asks that the long-and-short-haul prohibition be repealed, as responsible for much of the present trouble in Nebraska. Another petition, from a jobbing city in the same State, remonstrates against any alteration of the law; for in its rigorous enforcement lies the city's hope of competitive sales as against other cities favored by position and by the rail carriers. The Granger sentiment was largely responsible for the Inter-State Act, because it was thought, in part justly, that cities and concentrated traffic in general were too much favored by the railroads. In the present emergency the Nebraska farmer finds the Inter-State Act a hindrance to the low rates which he thinks the railroads ought to grant upon his corn, so that his overproduction may reach an Eastern market at a price high enough to give him a small profit.

If we inquire whether the Nebraska farmer has any ground for his demand, we are met by one great preliminary difficulty. Either the rates upon the different articles carried by the railroads should bear a certain reasonable relation to each other, or they need not. As far as the Inter-State Law goes, it decides this question in favor of an equitable relationship. This is the contention of all interior towns that wish to control the jobbing trade of their section or State—Lincoln, Nebraska, as against Chicago, for example. This contention, applied to the carriage of corn, means that if unusually low rates are granted upon that commodity, every industry, agricultural or manufacturing, in that and other States will insist upon a like reduction because of discrimination. The usual argument is, "If the railroads can carry corn at that rate and make money, they can carry my goods at a corresponding price. Am I not as much in need of help as the farmer of Nebraska?" And under our present laws the argument has force.

One point about the long-and-short-haul discussion is not often referred to. If the famous fourth section should be struck from the law, the question of "undue preference or advantage" would still remain to be decided, and this would involve the rightfulness of a proportionately greater charge for a shorter distance. It is possible that the fact of the presence of a specific section in the Inter-State Act is itself at times a hindrance to justice. Naturally the Inter-State Commission, in interpreting the law, lays stress upon the necessity of conforming to this specific rule. It is also possible that the Commission's respect for the supposed wishes of Congress and the nation has led it a little too far. The Commission is quoted as saying, for instance, that a local rate between two points must bear a certain relation to the proportion of a through rate accruing between the same points on a distant shipment. This, it will be noticed, goes beyond the letter of the fourth section, which deals with aggregate charges only. Many of our disputes about this long-and-short-haul matter could,

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on grounds of equity, be settled better by a repeal of the section entirely, thus leaving the question of discrimination to be determined by the general prohibition of undue preference. One objection to this might be that the law is now too vague, and that we ought not to take out the only specific clause. But is the law too vague? Is it not thus rather conforming to other statutes?

Under our laws a house must be habitable if rent is to be collected by suit. We are nowhere told exactly what habitable means. Cases have been tried in times past which furnish a large number of precedents governing the relations between landlord and tenant. Under these precedents it is a matter of fact to be determined by the evidence whether a certain damage releases the tenant or not. Consider the confusion which would ensue should our statutes attempt to define exactly the things necessary for a habitable home. The vagueness may seem unsatisfactory, but it works towards a fairer measure of justice for all concerned. In like manner the vagueness of the prohibition of unjust discrimination in transportation is faulty, mainly through a lack of precedents, though the whole law needs better machinery for its enforcement. The body of men who begin the work of establishing such precedents have a difficult and delicate task. In this respect the community is fortunate in the present Commission. As a means of meting out justice, the Anglo-Saxon mind has not yet invented a better method than by having each side in a dispute state its case as strongly as possible before some impartial tribunal, this deciding between the disputants upon the facts and in accordance with some general principle. The differences of circumstances and of conditions in transportation are endless. No law could possibly cover them all in detail. The statement of a principle should be the only requirement, leaving the application to the Commission, according to the facts in each case. In the Nebraska matter the railroads think that a great reduction in the corn rate would benefit the consumer more than the producer; but, more than all else, they fear that, under the theory of relationship of rates such a reduction would be made the ground for a general demand for similar favors on other articles. At the same time, if we argue that one rate should not be used as a criterion for another rate, we precipitate upon the country all the evils which the Inter-State Act was intended to cure.

Going back to the resolution again, the Commission should have the sympathy of the community. How the "more stringent enforcement" of the law would help the corn-producer is hard to see. If all are agreed upon the correctness of the main principles of the Inter-State Act, it is equally difficult to see how the railroad rates on corn can be pronounced relatively unreasonable; while a pronounced change in any important provision of the act—such as the short-haul rule—would ruin many important business interests established throughout the very corn belt whose products now do not realize the "actual cost of production."

THE ENGLISH LABOR LESSON.

THE results of the strike of the dock laborers in London last year, as told from day to day in the English press, are extremely interesting to those who occupy themselves with what is called "the labor problem." Nothing in the story is more interesting than the closeness with which the whole affair has followed the American experience of four years ago. Here is a passage from the last *Spectator*, containing the lesson of the late English strikes, which might, barring the phraseology, have been found in these columns at almost any time during the spring of 1886:

"The issue thus raised is more serious than any of those on which trade quarrels used formerly to turn. Workmen have a right to give or withhold their labor. It is their own—theirs to sell if they wish to sell it; theirs to keep if they do not wish to sell it. But the very same principle of individual freedom which sustains this claim of the workmen, equally sustains the corresponding claim of the employers. They have a right to give or withhold employment. It is their own—theirs to sell if they wish to sell it; theirs to keep if they do not wish to sell it. The new dock strike directly contravenes this principle. The dock-laborers are endeavoring to prevent the employment of non-unionist men belonging to another trade. As regards their own labor, they are free to do as they please. They need not load any carts if they are minded to stand idle, nor need the unionist carmen bring any carts to be loaded if they prefer to stay at home. But when the members of either union seek, directly or indirectly, to prevent employers from getting other men to do the work which they refuse to do, they are openly attacking individual liberty. They are trying to stamp out non-unionist labor. No union standing by itself can attempt this with any chance of success. It can only be done by violent picketing, and as soon as picketing becomes unmistakably violent, the police interfere. But if unions combine, their power of interfering with non-unionists becomes very much greater. There is no need to use violence to the non-unionists themselves; they have the chance of attaining their end by the quieter method of making the employment of non-unionists inconvenient. In the present case, supposing the laborers' union have their way, any owner of goods employing non-unionist carmen will not get his goods delivered to him. He will send in vain to the dock or wharf where they are stored; the unionist laborers employed there will refuse to load his carts."

What has happened to bring home to the English mind these to us now familiar truths is this: When the casual laborers employed by the Dock Companies struck for higher wages and more regular work, the Dock Companies answered: "We cannot pay you higher wages, because our business will not allow us to do so. We are making no profits now, and some of us are almost insolvent. Nor can we give you regular work, because our business is irregular in its very nature. We sometimes need more labor than we can get, but most of the time do not need one-half of what offers. The fact is, that there are too many of you. It is your frantic competition here in East London which keeps you so poor and miserable. You ought either to go back to the country, where you are sorely needed, or emigrate to some new country. Our stockholders cannot take care of you, because a large proportion of them are very poor themselves."

There is much reason for believing that these words of soberness and truth would have produced the desired effect; that something would have been done to lessen the oversupply of labor in the dock district, and to arrest the drift into London of "casuals" tired of farm labor in the country districts, but for the interference at this point of a body of philanthropists, headed by Cardinal Manning and supported, with curious fatuity, by a portion of the daily press and of the charitable public. These friends of Labor furiously attacked the Dock Companies for their cruelty and injustice, on two grounds: one was that the dock-laborers were very poor and miserable, and the other was, in effect, that anybody who once employs a man is bound to see, ever after, that he has regular employment at good wages. In support of these theses, the strikers, led by a certain labor agitator and Socialist named Burns, were encouraged in every possible way to hold out. Subscriptions for their support poured in from all parts of the country; meetings were held to express sympathy with them; the companies were overwhelmed with abuse; sympathetic strikes among other trades were fomented and set on foot. The working-classes all over the country were plunged in a fever of vague expectation of the great labor millennium. No proper examination of the nature of the problem raised by the strike, or of the probable effect on business of their theory of the rights of labor, was made by any of the dockmen's advocates. The air was filled, among the well-to-do classes, with that curious fear that something revolutionary and tremendous was going to happen to the social organization which some of us experienced here when Powderly began to convert us all (except bankers and brokers) into "Knights of Labor," and threatened to do away with the State and Federal Governments.

The companies at last made some concessions, both as regards money and hours, which they could not really afford to make, but which they felt compelled to make in order to put an end to popular clamor and prevent the ruin of London as a port. The negotiations were conducted on behalf of the laborers by Cardinal Manning, Sir J. Whitehead, and Mr. Sidney Buxton, and an agreement in due form was finally reached, and the men went back to work. Did peace and content then reign? Not a bit of it. The companies have never had a quiet week since. The leaders of the union thought they had discovered that they possessed great power, and felt the need of continually showing it. The trouble began with an attempt to compel the discharge of all the non-unionists employed by the companies during the strike, and every few days have revealed a new grievance, to be redressed by a strike. Moreover, their success fired the imagination of the other London trades-unions. The gasmen struck because the companies tried to make them share in the profits. The carmen and truckmen struck in order to help the dockmen, refusing to deliver goods to be handled by non-union men at the docks, and so on through various connected trades. The loss of money has been very great, and so has the interruption to business and the inconvenience to the public.

Although the strikers are being defeated,

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there is not much sign as yet of returning sense and moderation. Minute description of the situation is not needed for American readers. We have here passed through every phase of the crisis. We know all about the right of a laborer to stay permanently, on wages fixed by himself or by his union, in the employment of any one who once chances to employ him. We know all about the right to frighten, maim, mutilate, or murder non-union men if they, in their greater poverty, seek to fill places which union men have voluntarily vacated. We know all about the right to damage an employer's property and hinder his business, if he accepts peaceably the laborer's own decision to leave his service; we know all about the notion that everybody who employs labor must be a rich man, with plenty of money in some secluded spot, which he is bound to produce or divide with Labor whenever Labor asks for it. We are also very familiar with the duty of "society" to guarantee every man against the consequences of his own vice, or folly, or impudence, or laziness, or extravagance. And we are well acquainted with the labor agitator who thunders against capital at labor meetings, and dreads nothing more than cordial relations between employer and employed, because they ruin his business. There is something odd, however, in these days of steam and electricity, in seeing the English public slowly learning their lesson with as much patience and confession of ignorance as if they had never heard of our own recent experience.

THE AIM OF THE GERMAN SOCIALISTS.

THE importance of the victories the Socialists have won in Germany can hardly be appreciated without remembering that they have been denied the use of the ordinary electoral machinery; that is to say, they cannot hold public meetings or publicly distribute documents, and many of their leading men are in exile under police orders. They have, therefore, been obliged to resort to such odd means of canvassing as writing the names of their candidates in chalk on the walls of houses and on the sidewalks, and distributing hand-bills surreptitiously—in many cases through their school-children. They are for the most part poor men, and as no salaries are paid to members of the Reichstag, compensation for their members has to be provided by voluntary contributions. The Paris *Figaro* tells a story of one of their candidates named Viereck, an illegitimate son of the old Emperor William, whose name in German means "Square," and whose supporters, therefore, covered the walls in his district with squares of all sizes on election day, with the single word "elect" written underneath. Among their candidates at the late election, there were twelve carpenters, ten machinists, eight compositors, eight shoemakers, six merchants, four cigar-makers, three tavern-keepers, three masons, three moulders, two gilders, two druggists, eight journalists—a very fair representation of what are called the working-classes of the community. They have displayed such activity that they are said to have held 107 meetings in Berlin, in spite of the police, during the last week of their canvass. It was directed by a central committee sitting in the capital and composed of Bebel, Grillenberger, Liebknecht, Meister, and Singer. They distributed the funds and supplied the speakers. These funds come from all parts of the world, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, Denmark, France, Austria, and England; but, strangely enough, by far the largest amounts come from the United States. Between the French and German Socialists there has, ever since 1884, been much fraternization. In that year the French made considerable contributions to the German campaign fund, and the Germans reciprocated in 1885.

In view of the rapid growth of the movement in Germany, of course greatly increased attention is being given to the aims of the Socialists. On this point they take every pains to make their meaning clear. At their Congress in Copenhagen, in 1883, they declared distinctly that what they sought was a radical social and economical revolution. They repeated this declaration at Bruggen in 1887. To make assurance doubly sure in the late canvass, they made every candidate sign the following declaration:

> "In the existing state of society all the means or instruments of labor have been monopolized by the capitalistic class; hence the dependence of the working class, the cause of all misery and of all slavery. As political parties act only for the purpose of guaranteeing their privileges to those who are already possessed of them, the working class ought to organize itself in a distinct party, having for its object its own economic emancipation. Every movement should have this end in view."

The Congress at Bruggen also put down, among the things to be striven for, "the expropriation of the soil and of other means of production."

So much for the programme. Its execution is, of course, a long way off. It will, even at the present rate of progress, be ages before the Socialists can in Germany or any other country set up a legislature strong enough to put the State in possession of all the land machinery of the country. The Socialists will win a good many victories in all countries, as long as the owners of property are not seriously alarmed. Wherever they are, Socialists of all shades will be astounded, and, it may be, appalled, by finding how deeply rooted in human nature property is, and what a tremendous resistance it can make to its enemies. So that the danger to it from the present movement in Germany has but little practical interest. What gives this its importance and attracts to it the attention of the world just now, is the exposure it makes of the futility and failure of the economical policy started by Bismarck and taken up by the present Emperor. It shows that not only have the high tariff and the workingmen's-insurance plan proved a complete failure as measures of pacification for the working classes, but that they have strengthened the working classes in their belief that their schemes of social reorganization are feasible. This is where the mischief of the Bismarck policy is now showing itself. A high tariff for the benefit of the workingman is the first step in his conversion to the notion that Government may properly take entire control of the national industry. As soon as this notion has taken a firm lodgment in his brain, the second step, by which he becomes convinced that to make the new system a success the Government should be entirely taken away from the capitalists, is very easy. This step the Germans are now taking. They are beginning to say: If it be true, as these emperors, and princes, and diplomats, and bankers, and other bigwigs say, that it is the duty of Government, and is in its power, to raise the wages of the workingman and make provision for him in his old age, surely the workingman himself is the fittest person to take charge of the matter. Why should it be left any longer in the hands of these gorgeous creatures in fine uniforms, who have never done a day's work in their lives, are living on the earnings of the poor, and have not a particle of real sympathy with them?

A JAPANESE STATE LEGISLATURE.

MITO, January 10, 1890.

JAPAN, like France, has a two-fold division of the country, the one geographical, and the other political. The former, or ancient, division is into *kuni*, of which there are now eighty-four; the latter, or modern division, is into *ken*, of which there are forty-two, besides three *fu*. (The three large cities of Tokio, Osaka, and Kioto, are part of no *ken*, but constitute each a political district, called *fu*). In 1878 the Emperor, in accordance with his pledge that "all measures [should] be decided by public opinion," as the first step towards local self-government, instituted assemblies in the various *ken* and *fu*. These assemblies meet annually in the capital city of each *ken*, and in each *fu*, and are called *kenkwai*, or *fukwai*. The city in which I live is the capital of a *ken*; therefore, I had an opportunity to visit the *kenkwai*, and to investigate the extent and limit of its authority.

In this *ken* the assembly is not provided with a chamber of its own for its meetings, but holds its sessions in the examination room of the High School. Ordinarily, visitors are allowed to be present at the sessions; but the chairman of the assembly is empowered to dismiss or keep out the audience at his discretion. It must, of course, be added, that the audience are expected to preserve proper order; in fact, only recently more stringent regulations have been issued to the police by the Government for the control of the outsiders. The man who expects to become a spectator leaves his card with the outer door-keepers, by whom his name is registered, and from whom a ticket of admission is received, to be given to the inner door-keeper.

At the further end of the room from the entrance on the higher platform is the Chairman's seat. On the lower platform, at his right and left, sit the two clerks, one a long-hand recorder and the other a shorthand reporter. On the ground floor, the desks of the members are arranged on the three sides of a rectangle. Beginning on the Chairman's left, the members from No. 1 to No. 21 are on one of the long sides of the rectangle; directly in front of the Chairman, but near the doorway, the members from No. 22 to No. 30 fill the short side; and on the Chairman's left, the remainder, up to No. 50, occupy the other long side. In front of each desk hangs a paper label inscribed with the name and the number of the member. On each desk are an ink-box,

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soroban (abacus), and such books and documents as may be needed. In the interior of the rectangle are several *hibachi*, large boxes which contain a charcoal fire. Back of the members on the Chairman's left, sit the audience. There are, of course, also servants to run on errands for the members. Among the representatives are a few old men; but almost all are middle-aged or young. About half of them have discarded the Japanese *kimono* for European dress. The room lacks ornaments altogether, and is far from being pretty according to Occidental ideas. Although the Japanese are very fond of tobacco and saki, no smoking or drinking is allowed in the assembly-room. The members do not lounge about, or sit with their feet on the desks, or envelope themselves in a cloud of smoke, or disgrace themselves by boisterous conduct. During the session they are very orderly; and, however spirited the debate may become, personal rudeness and violence are lacking.

According to the printed rules governing these bodies, they are "to counsel about the budget of expenses to be met by local taxation, and about the manner of collecting such taxes." The members are elected in each *gun* (county) or *ku* (ward) according to the population, at the rate of one member for each 20,000 people; but the number of representatives in one county or ward cannot exceed five. Each legislative district may also select *yobi-in* (reserve members), not to exceed ten, but always twice the number of the regular members. For instance, in this *kenkwai* there are altogether forty-eight representatives; therefore, the districts of this *ken* must elect in all ninety-six "reserve members." As their name indicates, they are to take the places of any regular members who may for any reason be unable to serve. It is thus very unlikely that there would ever be a vacancy to be filled by a special election, except in case the entire body is prorogued. Can any one mention another country where each member of a legislative body has two "reserve" substitutes ready to step into his vacant place?

A candidate for representative must be over twenty-five years of age, a permanent resident of that *ken*, and have lived there for more than three years. He must also be paying an annual land-tax of more than ten *yen*. Idiots, convicts of more than one year's confinement, bankrupts, civil officers, priests and ministers, soldiers and sailors in actual service, are all ineligible. Political offenders are not eligible till five years from the time of release; and those who have retired from public service are ineligible under four years. The qualifications of voters differ from the above in only four respects: electors must be over twenty years of age, permanent residents of that *gun* or *ku*, and be paying annual land-taxes of more than five *yen*, and priests and ministers have the right of suffrage. The term of service covers four years; but the system of rotation prevails, so that the terms of half of the members expire every two years.

From among the members the assembly elects a "standing committee of from five to seven persons," who serve for a period of two years. This committee remains in the capital city throughout the year, and gives its opinion when the Governor asks about the manner and order of carrying out the enactments of the assembly, and about the payment of extraordinary expense. In this committee a majority make a quorum and decide a vote; and at its meetings no spectators are allowed. A member of this committee receives "from 30 *yen* to 80 *yen* per month and travelling expenses"; while an ordinary member of the assembly receives "1 *yen* per diem during the session and travelling expenses." These salaries are all included in the budget of local taxation.

The ordinary annual session opens some time in November, and continues for not more than thirty days. If within that time the public business is unfinished, or if for any reason it seems necessary, the Governor is empowered to call a special session to continue for not more than seven days. In any case the Governor must state his reasons therefor to the Department of State for Home Affairs at Tokio. Likewise, if there is a disagreement between the Governor and the assembly, then both parties, stating the reasons for their opinions, must appeal for a decision to the Department of Home Affairs. In this case the Governor may suspend the assembly; and, if the decision from the central Government comes too late, he may call a special meeting. If the debates of the assembly disturb the public peace, or violate any laws or regulations, the Governor may suspend the assembly, but must notify the Department of Home Affairs. The latter, moreover, has the power at any time to suspend a *kenkwai* or a *fukwai*, but must call a new one within ninety days.

Every session of an assembly is formally "opened" by the Governor of that *fu* or *ken*. The business to come before the assembly is presented in a bill originating with the Governor. At the first reading of the bill, or even at any time, if a member wishes explanations concerning any of the receipts or disbursements, the Governor or his representative must explain. As a matter of fact, the Governor is rarely present to make such explanations in person, but the First Secretary of the *fu* or *ken* is present as his representative throughout the session. Besides him, the chief officer of the particular department whose affairs are under discussion at the time is also present, to answer any questions or make any explanations. These two officials may speak at any time, provided they do not interrupt the speech of a member; but they have no vote.

The discussion of disputed subjects usually comes with the first and the second readings. The third reading is generally a matter of form, though often a final tussle will come then if the contest is close. For instance, at the last session of this legislature, at first an appropriation for the local newspaper was rejected, but on the third reading it was passed by amendment to the original bill. In a debate each member has the right to speak if he does not use improper language concerning others. When a member wishes to address the assembly, he rises, calls out "*Gichō*" (chairman), and gives his number. When the chairman has recognized him by repeating that number, he "has the floor." A majority vote of all the members present is necessary for the passage of a motion.

After the "original bill" has been presented to an ordinary meeting of an assembly, if there are two members who wish to make a petition about other important matters of that *fu* or *ken*, they must first obtain the permission of the assembly, after which the petition will be presented, like a bill, for discussion. If this bill is passed, then it can be presented, as the opinion of the assembly, either to the Governor or to the Department of Home Affairs. No bill becomes a law until it has been signed by the Governor. If the latter does not agree with a bill, he may appeal to the Department of Home Affairs, where it will be finally decided.

If we sum up the extent and limit of the powers of a Japanese local assembly, we may say that in theory a *kenkwai* or a *fukwai* is by no means entirely independent of the central Government, and does not possess absolute control of the matters of its own *ken* or *fu*. It will be noticed that in all cases the final ratification or decision rests with the Governor or the Department of Home Affairs. The latter also has the power in its own hands of suspending an assembly at its discretion. It would seem, then, that theoretically a *fukwai* or a *kenkwai* is pretty much under the control of the central Government, and has very little real power of its own. Its nature appears more like that of an elective advisory board than of a legislative body, so that in one sense the title of this contribution is a misnomer. But in practice and in fact, a wise Governor, though he is an appointive officer of the central Government, does not often put himself in opposition to public opinion unless it be a case of the greatest importance; and the Department of Home Affairs is loath to exercise its authority unless it is absolutely necessary. The central Government holds the power to control these assemblies if it should be necessary, but it also respects public opinion, and allows local self-government as far as possible. Likewise, in the Constitution which goes into effect this year, the Imperial Government, giving up much of its legislative power, also retains sufficient authority not to become entirely subject to the Diet.

It seems necessary, in the present stage of political development in this Empire, that too much authority and prestige should not be suddenly taken away from the central Government and intrusted to the inexperienced and irresponsible people. But we feel assured that, as the people show themselves capable of exercising power, their privileges will be gradually extended. We should not find fault with Japan because in a few years she has not leaped into the enjoyment of political privileges which the English and American people obtained only after centuries of slow and often bloody development; but we should congratulate her because, by peaceful proclamation, she has gradually taken herself entirely out of the pale of Oriental absolutism, beyond even despotic Russia, and may from this year be classed with Bismarckian Germany. C.

MEILHAC'S "MARGOT."

PARIS, February 6, 1890.

THERE is perhaps no more popular writer in Paris, in the circle of journalistic writers, than M. Meilhac, who was for so many years the literary companion of Ludovic Halévy. They both had the good fortune, while they were young, full of gayety and of spirits, of finding in Offenbach a musical collaborator. Their operettas are world-famous; who has not heard of "La Belle Hélène," "Barbe-bleue," etc.? Offenbach had something in him of the genius of Mozart; he was of course but a small reduction of this great man, but he always reminds me of him by the grace, the ease, the loveliness of his melodies. Without Offenbach, Halévy and Meilhac would probably have had only the transient popularity of so many others whose names are now completely forgotten. Thanks to him, they have risen higher; they are still before the public, and they have both become members of the French Academy—somewhat, it must be confessed, to the surprise of those who have continued to regard the Academy with the reverence of the past.

The collaboration of the two operatic writers came to an end after the war of 1870; for what reason? Nobody knows, probably, except themselves and their most intimate friends. Halévy

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abandoned the stage completely and gave himself up to novel-writing. He made himself a second reputation, so to speak, by the light stories of 'Madame et Monsieur Cardinal' and the 'Filles de M. Cardinal,' and by the novel 'L'Abbé Constantin,' which opened for him the doors of the French Academy. Meilhac continued to work for the stage. He too soon showed new ambition; he grew more serious, and aimed visibly at becoming a writer of comedies instead of operettas or vaudevilles. An old bachelor, a true Parisian, knowing nothing outside of his dear boulevard, he made his special study of the world which has for its limits the Bastille and the Arc de Triomphe. The moralist can find several worlds in this small universe—all the extremes of vice and of virtue, all the refinements of civilization, with all the permanent instincts of the natural man. To be sure, man always remains the same, in a certain sense; but the modern *coquette*, the modern *ingénue*, are not exactly the coquette, the ingénue of the time of Molière—and the *Célimène*, the *Agnès*, of Paris are not exactly the Célimène, the Agnès, of Chicago or New York—not even those of London, though London is geographically very near us.

Meilhac makes no pretension of being a dramatic creator, he does not undertake to model new types; he contents himself with the old types of French comedy, but he tries to give them their modern look, and he excels in observing the small traits which give these types their present character. He belongs to the new school of realists. Our painters, our sculptors only copy what they see with their own eyes; they do not pretend to invent anything. Meilhac's field of observation has been limited—it has been limited even in Paris; but he has seen well what he has seen; he is a good observer. In the comedy which has recently been produced on the stage of the French Theatre, he has aimed at higher objects than heretofore; he has evidently intended to modernize (if the word may be employed) a subject which had tempted Molière, and which was treated by him in one of his best plays.

"L'Ecole des Femmes" was represented for the first time in Paris on December 26, 1662, at the theatre of the Palais Royal, and played by the troupe of Monsieur, the brother of the King. The printed comedy was dedicated to the famous Madame, so well known by her letters. *Arnolphe* is an old man who keeps an innocent girl in confinement, and tries to protect her against all the seductions of the world. He intends to marry her himself, and he educates her for himself; but Nature has her rights, and the innocent *Agnès* falls in love with a handsome young man, *Horace*. The innocence of *Agnès* is stronger than the experience of *Arnolphe*, youth is stronger than old age; and when the aged *Arnolphe* speaks eloquently of his passion, little *Agnès* tells him quietly,

"Tenez, tous vos discours ne me touchent point l'âme;
Horace avec deux mots en ferait plus que vous."

The subject treated by Molière in the "École des Femmes" is as old as humanity itself. He showed in some parts of his play a boldness which scandalized a portion of the society of his time, and he was so much criticised that he took the trouble to write another play, called "La Critique de l'École des Femmes," which was represented for the first time on the 1st of June, 1663.

Let us see how M. Meilhac has developed this same drama, the competition of old age and of youth. The folly of the old man and the girl's innocence are the cardinal points of "Margot" as well as of the "École des Femmes." But how different *M. de Boisvillette*, an old Parisian bachelor, a club man, a roué, who has nothing to learn in life, is from Molière's *Arnolphe;* and how different is *Margot* from *Agnès*. *Margot* has been charitably brought up by a person who belongs to what Dumas has called the "Demi-monde." She has never seen anybody but women belonging to a perverse society, irregular men and more irregular women. She is innocent when the play opens, but her mind had no purity to lose; the conversation she has heard, the lessons which she has indirectly received, have not prepared her for a virtuous life.

The first act begins in the house of *M. de Boisvillette*. He has been dining with some friends and their lady friends; the company is gone to end the evening at some theatre. *Margot* has been dining there, too, but she has disappeared, she has probably gone home. *Boisvillette* is preparing to go to bed when suddenly, behind a great screen, he sees *Margot* profoundly asleep. He wakes her up, and then begins a very pretty scene. *Boisvillette* is a gentleman, and, accustomed as he is to light society, he treats the young girl with a sort of respect; she takes the opportunity to make him a sort of confession. She begins to understand thoroughly her situation; she is not happy, she feels no inclination for the life of the dissolute woman who has brought her up. She sees no choice; either she must throw herself into the river, or else she must live as the people around her live. *Boisvillette* is moved; he says to her that there is a better thing to do—he will send her somewhere to the country, for two or three years, and he will find her some good, honest, modest husband.

This conversation between an old sceptic, who becomes by degrees sentimental, and the girl, who clings to the hope of saving her innocence, is a model of grace and delicacy. Of course *Boisvillette* feels himself by degrees falling in love with *Margot*. In her new life *Margot* finds herself in contact with a nice young man, the nephew of *Boisvillette;* she falls in love, not with her saviour, but with this young man. They both become more and more miserable. *Margot* has the most tender regard for her protector, but she cannot return his sentiments. *Boisvillette* finds himself ridiculous, absurd: he is too much a man of the world to behave like Molière's *Arnolphe*, but he suffers, he is tortured, and all the more because he knows that his nephew does not care for *Margot*. She, too, learns that her dear *Georges* is going to be married, and becomes desperate; she leaves *Boisvillette's* château, hardly knowing what she will do. She fortunately meets *François*, the keeper of *Boisvillette's* domain, the man whom *Boisvillette* originally intended to give her for a husband. This *François* receives the confidence of her misfortune, and tells her substantially: "After what has happened, since you cannot marry *Boisvillette's* nephew, since you will not marry *Boisvillette* himself, you must look for a protector, for an energetic man, and accept his guidance."

The voice of this *François*, of this "man of the woods," is the voice of stern reality. But it is hardly the voice which *Margot* would have been likely to submit to if she had had a real existence. M. Meilhac has represented *Margot* to us as rather too romantic a person; we cannot admit that she will accept easily a solution which has a sort of brutality about it. *Margot* has been too much spoiled from her earliest youth, her intellect has been refined, even to corruption, by the brilliant conversation of Parisian rakes, of witty, handsome, and unscrupulous women; her heart has been mellowed and softened by the delicate adoration of *Boisvillette;* the incense which he has been burning before her has been of the choicest kind; and the transformation which the gradual progress of his passion has made in him could not but have touched the most tender fibres of her nature. She did not return love for love, but she has been living in an atmosphere of gratitude, of affection, of friendship; she has afterwards herself felt what love is, she has desired to become the wife of her benefactor's nephew. Under such circumstances, we are rather shocked to find her suddenly offering her hand to the coarse "man of the woods," to the man who, good and virtuous as he may be, is, however, in an almost menial position in *Boisvillette's* house. She humbles herself too much; she has not the excuse of feeling that she loves *François*; she marries him merely in order to make an end, to screen herself against the temptations of a vicious life. She is determined to be a virtuous woman, and she sees no other way than this marriage. Well, perhaps there was no other way; perhaps *Margot* has done the best thing she could do; but this end proved a sort of disappointment to the spectators. They all expected *Margot* to marry *Boisvillette* himself, notwithstanding his age. Meilhac has not dared to unite them; he has left *Boisvillette* alone, unhappy; conscious, however, of having done some good and saved a soul. He has left *Margot* united to a strong man who is determined to make her walk straight. Not a very romantic end, you see. The beauty of the first act, and the incoherence of the second and the third, remind one of the Latin verse,

"Desinit in piscem mulier formosa superne."

Correspondence.

THE RIGHTS OF COLOR AT THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial in your issue of the 13th stating the aims of the Afro-American League was incorrect, as you will see by the enclosed "Address to the People of the United States" which was issued by the League. As a matter of fact, the Afro-American does not desire any class legislation. Both conventions declared against it. The native-born American of African descent does, however, wish the civil rights which are freely accorded naturalized Americans, but denied to him.

Theoretically the Afro-American is a citizen, endowed with a citizen's rights, but practically he is not allowed to exercise the rights guaranteed him by the Constitution. You, as a Caucasian (I presume you are), can have no proper conception of the indignities heaped upon refined ladies and gentlemen in the South simply because they are of African descent. Educated Afro-Americans 7-8 Caucasian, 1-8 negro, receive the same treatment at the hands of brutal Southerners that illiterate negro field hands get. In the South the negro attends a separate and usually inferior school, he must ride in a separate and filthy railroad car or in the smoking car, he must sit in a separate gallery at the theatre. The hotels refuse to receive him at all. The prejudice against the negro does not even stop at the grave, for his dead must be buried in a separate graveyard. The Southern people have always endeavored to show the negro that he is an inferior, that he belongs to a separate and distinct class.

The Afro-American does not wish to be separated from other American citizens, but he is forced away by the treatment he receives. As a class the colored people have been wronged; they have been prevented from exercising the

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right of suffrage; as a class they have been denied their civil rights; they have been murdered in cold blood, without any effort being made to punish the murderers; when suspected of crime, they have been lynched. Having been wronged as a class, as a class they are endeavoring to right those wrongs. Would they be worthy of citizenship if they did less? Suppose the Irish, the Germans, the Italians, or any other class of people were treated as the Afro-Americans have been treated in the South; would they not as a class resent it? Southern legislatures have passed infamous laws aimed at negroes as a class. A week or so ago the Mississippi Legislature resolved to memorialize Congress to repeal the Fifteenth Amendment. In view of these facts, the Afro-American has aroused from his past lethargy, and has determined to demand all the rights to which he is entitled as an American citizen.—Respectfully,

C. F. ADAMS.

CHICAGO, February 18, 1890.

[We believe Mr. Adams to be in error as regards the Mississippi Legislature. It took no action in the premises—and it would have made no difference if it had done so.—ED. NATION.]

THE RACE PROBLEM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As a solution of the "race problem" in the Southern States, I have a remedy not nearly as heroic as that of Senators Butler and Morgan, who wish to remove six millions of negroes, more or less, to Africa, which every one knows can and will never be done; less trenchant than that of the legislators at Jackson, Mississippi, who are petitioning for the repeal of the Fifteenth Amendment, which is almost as hopeless of accomplishment as the other; and one differing widely from the propositions of Senators Sherman, Ingalls, and Chandler, who hope by a Federal election law to restore the days of reconstruction, and to carry the Gulf States, by the negro vote, for the Republican ticket.

Unlike Senators Butler and Morgan, I maintain that the negroes, even in their unavoidable inferiority to the white men surrounding them, and while they have no chance to become bank presidents or railroad magnates, or to enter fashionable society, are vastly better off than they could be in Africa for the next one hundred years to come. Unlike the Democrats at Jackson, I neither hope nor wish to see the Fifteenth Amendment repealed. Unlike Senators Sherman, Ingalls, and Chandler, though I do wish that all the negroes should freely vote, I do not wish them to vote solidly for the one party supposed to be most favorable to them.

The suppression of the negro vote in five or six of the Gulf States is certainly a great evil; but its free exercise in the days following upon 1868, with the resulting corrupt governments, State and local, was undoubtedly a much greater evil. There is one other alternative left. It is this, that the negro vote should be divided, as the vote of the poorest laboring class in the Northern States is, in varying proportions, between the two great parties, while the lead in each party, as everywhere in the world, would be taken by men of some wealth, some education, some standing in the community—by men, in short, who have something to lose by bad government. The government of South Carolina under Robert K. Scott and Frank Moses was more intolerable than that of New York city under Tweed, Oakey Hall, and Connolly. With the negroes all voting, but following in two opposing hosts the lead of those white men who would come forward naturally, without aid from outside of the State, South Carolina would enjoy a much better government than the large cities of the North, if only for the reason that its poverty renders politics there less attractive to the most dangerous boodlers.

How, then, is this condition of affairs—a division of the negro vote—to be brought about? Is it at all within the range of possibility?

Answering the latter question first, I say, with proper efforts, it is possible. In two States at least, large numbers of negroes have, within the last year or two, freely and openly voted the Democratic ticket—in Louisiana, many of those who are engaged in growing sugar, on account of the free-trade tendency of the Republican party on the sugar duties; in Virginia, on account of a personal quarrel with Mahone.

Then, how shall the individual Southern negro be emancipated from the domination of his race; and what motive shall he have to separate himself from the Republican party, of which he has so long been the docile follower, rather than a member? The Australian ballot, while protecting the Republican colored voter from the shotgun of the white-liner, will also protect the colored Democrat from the jibes and anathemas of his kinsfolk and his church. The motive and reason why an intelligent negro in the Gulf States should vote for Democratic Congressmen and Presidential electors is not far to seek—not, at least, if the Democratic party plants itself, under the lead of Cleveland, on the one great principle of its existence, viz.: upon free trade, casting aside the quirks, evasions, and straddles of the platform of 1884. Din it in the ears of every colored grower of cotton and corn, to the exclusion of all other political questions, that the Republicans want to cheat him out of his slender income, to make money for the wool-grower, the iron-miner, and the manufacturer, and he will soon understand the tariff. Tell him openly, "It is quite proper for those fellows who work in the furnaces at Birmingham to vote the Republican ticket—and for the white furnace-owners too; it is not a question of North and South, of white or black, but of free trade on one side and robbery on the other," and you are bound to make enough impression on the black Republican phalanx to split it wide open; and when that is done, the race problem is half solved.

Are there Democratic leaders with the needful courage to undertake the task?

L. N. D.

LOUISVILLE, KY., February 14, 1890.

A HINT TO STEAMSHIP COMPANIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "G. M. L.," in your last issue, deserves the thanks of the foreign-travelling public. Perhaps nowhere in the world is there so much competition and eagerness to be the fittest to survive as among the rival steamship companies between Europe and America. Steamers which, ten or even five years ago, were regarded as "ocean greyhounds," are now contemptuously ranked among "old tubs" by the typical American tourist, who always wants the latest, the best, and the most comfortable, at any cost. To meet this want, one floating palace after another is put on the ocean, with ever more comfortable decks, saloons, and cabins. The best steamers have hitherto been usually filled at certain seasons of the year weeks or even months ahead of the date of sailing; but in a year or two more, at the present rate of building, all the competing lines will have nothing but "best" steamers, and then it will be necessary to find some other mode of competitive advertising than increased size of decks, saloons, and cabins, and greater speed.

Now, during the past few weeks steamer after steamer has come in with reports of "terrific weather," "davits broken like pipe-stems," "life-boats carried away," etc. Only five that I have read of report the use of oil, and all with success. It is acknowledged to be so effective, and yet so cheap and so simple, that I wonder it has not yet occurred to any of the companies to advertise the regular use of oil in stormy weather, as a means of safety. I am convinced that the line which should advertise this innovation would soon become the most popular, even if its steamers were not of the record-breaking kind.

Then as to the *free seat* on deck. It is a most extraordinary and outrageous fact that if the first-class passengers on these floating palaces want a movable and comfortable seat, they must bring it along! Were it not that custom blunts the perceptions, this fact would seem so idiotic to every passenger that he would laugh aloud the first moment, and the second indignantly demand of the companies what right they have to treat him like a steerage passenger. It is the steerage principle to ask passengers to bring their tin plates and mattresses and camp-stools, and it is high time that this venerable absurdity and last relic of the steerage principle should be abolished in the first cabin. If any company should decide to introduce free steamer-chairs, I am sure the *Nation* and many other papers would gladly give it a handsome "reading notice." F. H. T.

HOW THE GERMANS TEACH "SEWING."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your readers were recently told of the state of female education in Germany, and in your review of Dr. Klemm's work ('European Schools') they learned of the general method of instruction in that country; perhaps they may be interested to complete the cycle in hearing how sewing is there taught.

Cassel prides itself upon its schools, and reminds each stranger within its gates that the present Emperor and his brother were sent thither to be prepared for the University. The Hohenzollerns had until then been privately educated. In view of the vaunted housewifely qualities of the German women, I thought to gain some useful hints from the way in which sewing, an integral part of the female curriculum, is taught in that town. The Germans have a verb, to sew, but the equivalent of our noun is *Handarbeit*, handwork, and I found that it is handiwork rather than sewing which is taught.

The German schools are all under Government supervision, a few sporadic private ones excepted, and are thus public, but not free, for a fee is exacted. The fees are so graded that the poor are of necessity in one class of schools, called Volksschulen—people's schools—while the higher-priced schools receive the children of the middle class. *Handarbeit* forms part of the instruction of each school year, six hours weekly in the Volksschulen and four hours in the Tochterschulen—daughter-schools—as the better classed ones are oddly called, as if the members of the former only "growed."

When it is remembered that seven years' school attendance is compulsory, one would expect the girl, even when the instruction ceases at fourteen, to be able, not merely to

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take the stitches, but, what is equally important, to put together neatly and firmly the parts of her garment; to be, in short, a satisfactory, if not a beautiful, plain sewer. Skilled in that necessary branch, the bright ones could be trusted to "pick up" the simple dressmaking they will need, while the dull would be at least rendered capable in one direction. Perhaps I should concede to the national prejudice instruction in knitting; but one would think that one year out of the seven might be enough for that branch, and that a girl could face life even if she knew but one way of knitting a heel. In fact, the first four school years are given up to knitting four pairs of stockings; to learning that crocheting which forms for the German women the concealed indolence that Hamerton says knitting does for the French around his house; and to stitching in their samplers letters to mark the garments which are still in the air. The poorer girls have thus only three years remaining in which to learn the real sewing so important to them; but even in that time, with the defter fingers and quicker brains resulting from the preceding four years' training, much might be done by a judicious method of teaching. Instead of this the annual pair of stockings is knit, with every possible and impossible heel, and a sampler of all the fancy stitches; crocheting practised in all its intricacies; hemstitching and canvas embroidery—this last presumably to enable them to make the slippers of the Herren, for whose behoof alone they are educated.

Of actual sewing, different seams are practised on a sampler, a couple of dust cloths are hemmed, a girl's and a woman's chemise made, and a half-dozen of the latter cut out in paper one-fifth the natural size. With this the instruction of the poor, to whom skill with the needle is so essential, ceases. The middle class attend school a year or two longer, but their instruction continues of the same varied nature. One year is given to embroidery, another to patching and darning in every possible material, and to making a doll set of house linen.

The result is that they are not a nation of needle-women. I do not know that any part of Germany furnishes ready-made undercloth-ing or hand-embroidery for the export trade. It comes from France and Switzerland. Having vainly sought in Hanover for well-made undergarments, I showed one of mine to the head of the largest establishment for that work in town. "Ah! that is French. May I ask what the gracious lady paid for it?" It was French, but bought at home for the equivalent of 6 marks. "It must have been done in a convent. Now I should have to pay 5 marks simply to get that tucking done by hand. I can furnish the gracious lady a similar one made by machine for 7 marks." The model was hand-made.

As the women sit in the shop doorways or in the public squares, watching their children at play in the sand-piles provided for them by an admirable municipal regulation, they are knitting or crocheting, but so often the latter that one comes to regard them as homely Penelopes who do not wish to finish their task. After a prolonged sojourn in Germany, the sight of women sewing in the gardens of Paris came upon me as a novelty.

The landlady of my German pension and her friends occupied themselves in the same way, and seldom did even their plain sewing, cramped and frugal as their mode of living was. I had for a time a German lady's maid. She wrote a good letter, knew a little French, crocheted me a pair of slippers, but could not do my sewing. A friend of mine, in the same plight, sent hers for three months to a Schneider Akademie, or school devoted entirely to sewing; yet these girls had had seven and eight years' school instruction in sewing. J. C. N.

CINCINNATI.

"JACKAHICK."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I should be glad to learn the meaning of this Indian word. It occurs in a letter from Peter Sayer to Charles, Lord Baltimore, in 1689: "They said the Indians would not come out [to an interview] except Col. Coursey came. I told 'em a Jackahick from him would do; and I would frame one and send Mr. John Hawkins with it." WM. HAND BROWNE.

Notes.

ROBERTS BROTHERS will publish next month 'The House of the Wolfings,' by William Morris, and Balzac's 'Sons of the Soil' ('Les Paysans') in Miss Wormeley's translation.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have in preparation 'Recollections of a Private,' by Warren Lee Goss.

'Afloat in the Forest,' by Mayne Reid, with a life of the author by R. H. Stoddard, is in the press of Worthington Co.

The National University of Chicago announces a Spanish grammar on a novel plan by Prof. Schele de Vere, of the University of Virginia. The former institution has also arranged for a national circulating library of 20,000 volumes, which will be sent anywhere by mail. Catalogues can be procured for ten cents by addressing 147 Throop Street, Chicago.

Prof. Woodrow Wilson has extracted a chapter from his work 'The State,' and publishes it, through D. C. Heath & Co., as a manual for schools and colleges, under the title of 'The State and Federal Governments of the United States.' It is furnished with a full topical analysis, a bibliography, and an index.

A collection of 'Vaterlandslieder' (Leipzig: F. W. Grunow; New York: B. Westermann & Co.), affords an interesting comparison of the pæans of Freiligrath, Geibel, etc., with those of Körner, Uhland, and Rückert, who voiced the Teutonic enthusiasm in the wars against the greater Napoleon. In its outer dress a most tasteful book, it revives many a battle-song in which the uprising of a united people against the "hereditary enemy" finds most poetic expression.

The *Transatlantic* (Boston) for February 15 gives an unusual portrait of Turgeneff on its first page—a weekly gallery, by the way. In the letterpress we find Francisque Sarcey's defence of his Russian friend's play, "Bread of Another," whose production at the Théâtre Libre evoked laughter and hisses. "I was tempted to rise and shout, Imbeciles!" says Sarcey.

The competition of mechanical with artistic engraving is observable in the numerous magazine ventures in which the dependence for illustrations is almost wholly upon "process." An ambitious attempt in the domain of weekly papers must now be recorded. On February 22 appeared the first number of the *Illustrated American* (New York: Bible House; Chicago: 142 Dearborn Street). It is a small folio of twenty-four pages, in triple columns, on highly glazed paper, of rather elegant typography. With the exception of a separate colored cartoon ("Comrades of the Desert," after Detaille), all the pictorial features have been reproduced by "process," with varying degrees of excellence. These have mostly a timely interest, as, *e. g.*, scenes on our new cruisers, in the Chicago Post-office, at the bench show, at the theatre, etc.; but there is a page given up to Bordentown, N. J., in a series called "Historic America," and a large number of views illustrate a letter from a flippant correspondent who has been sent off to rediscover Brazil. The literary and news departments are not deficient in number or scope, and there is evidence of experience on the part of the management.

The *Round Table* is the name of a weekly journal of sixteen pages to be published at Nashville, Tenn., beginning about March 1. The sample number already issued contains the announcement that discussion of all living issues will be encouraged; that the woman question and prohibition will be freely considered; and that "progress as contradistinguished from Bourbonism in either church or state" will be its general aim. Such a liberal spirit in a Southern journal is very gratifying. This first number contains contributions by H. M. Doak on "Jefferson Davis," by Prof. Charles Forster Smith on "Why Has Georgia a Literature and Tennessee Not?" by Edward W. Bemis on "Progress of Prison Reform," and by W. P. Trent on "The Study of Southern History." Both Maurice Thompson and George W. Cable furnish a short story.

Mr. Spofford, the Librarian of Congress, testifies, as we learn from the Washington *Herald*, that a large number of colored men and women nowadays read instructive books. This reading, he says, is of a serious character—chiefly works on history, travels, government, and politics. Some devote their attention to tales of adventure and to popular scientific works. They are indifferent to treatises on political economy or finance. The remarkable thing is that they do not care for fiction, or, as Mr. Spofford avers, that they are less fond of novel-reading than are white people of the same class. Most of those who come under his observation are the students in attendance upon the local schools and colleges, or ambitious politicians who drift to Washington seeking positions.

Dr. G. E. Manigault contributes to the January number of the *Magazine of American History* a sketch of the life of "Ralph Izard, the South Carolina Statesman" (1742-1804). His particular aim is to refute Mr. Parton's adverse judgment in consequence of Izard's disagreement with Franklin in Paris, and incidentally he seeks to rectify the military reputation of a son of the South Carolinian, who participated in the war of 1812. In both these instances more room would be needed to make the matters in dispute quite intelligible at this day. Dr. Manigault does not adopt a polemic tone, and his sketch gives a pleasant impression of its subject.

In the Providence *Book Notes* for February 15, Mr. Rider discusses the origin of the name of Rhode Island, and concludes to stand by Roger Williams in connecting it with the Isle of Rhodes and the signification of "Island of Roses" in opposition to the view that the name is Dutch and means "Red Island." We ought, by the way, some time ago to have noticed the first number in Mr. Rider's series of "Rhode Island Historical Tracts," issued last year. It is from the pen of the editor himself, and consists of 'An Inquiry Concerning the Origin of the Clause in the Laws of Rhode Island (1719-1783) Disfranchising Roman Catholics.' This disability was an obvious infringement on that "soul liberty" on which the colony was based, as Rhode Islanders maintain with pride; but Mr. Rider persuades himself that, while members of no

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other sect were debarred from becoming freemen (*i. e.*, voters), the Catholics were in the same category with disfranchised non-landowners, women, and second sons. It is true that as Roman Catholics they were permitted the free exercise of their religion, but a penalty was certainly laid on their belief, and on theirs alone.

As we spoke, a fortnight ago, of the paper in the Essex Institute Historical Collections concerning the settlement of the Northwest Territory, we may also call attention to Mr. Frederick D. Stone's paper on "The Ordinance of 1787," which comes to us as a reprint from the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*. It is a singularly dispassionate marshalling of the incidents leading up to the Northwest Ordinance of 1787, an apportionment of the several parts in the construction of that famous statute to the great men who severally contributed to its contents and language, and an explanation of the readiness of the South to prohibit slavery in the Territory. It shows conclusively that the Ordinance was a truly national expression, gratifying divers interests, selfish and philanthropic. Dr. Cutler's pretensions suffer most at Mr. Stone's hands, but enough glory is left to Massachusetts and Essex County, even if it has to be shared by Jefferson and Grayson.

The latest report of the Executive Committee of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin makes the customary exhibition of steady growth. Its newspaper files, a special feature of its collections, now number nearly 6,000 volumes. In connection with the University, an inquiry has been made into the organized groups of foreign nationalities for which Wisconsin is preëminent as respects number and variety. Some hint is given of these, and we see the Irish giving way before the Germans, and the Americans before the Danes. The results of this inquiry will probably be published by the University. The Society has lost its able and efficient cataloguer, Miss Isabel Durrie, a graduate of the University, and one of its curators in the person of Prof. W. F. Allen, of whom an excellent memorial sketch accompanies the report.

The dawnings of the national "Zoo" at Washington perhaps possess the widest interest in Prof. Langley's report on the Smithsonian Institution for the year 1889. But also there is a lamentable passage about the deposit long ago of the Smithsonian's valuable library with that of Congress, and of the utter neglect and inaccessibility of it caused by the shameful delay of the national Legislature to provide a fitting receptacle for the nation's books.

The first annual report of the Director of the Missouri Botanical Garden—the foundation of the late Henry Shaw—is on our table. The School of Botany established in connection with it and Washington University has had as yet but a small attendance, but no extravagant expectations were indulged in on this score.

The forty-fourth annual report of the Director of Harvard College Observatory shows succinctly the amount of work which that institution has accomplished along the lines of its various activities, in addition to the valuable work done at home with the observatory instruments during the past year. By the continued aid of Mrs. Draper and the Boyden fund, an expedition has been sent to Peru, by means of which the southern stars can be included in the most important investigations. Maintaining thus two stations, one in the northern and the other in the southern hemisphere, a greater completeness in the researches is rendered possible than in any other way. Another expedition, to southern California, gives a mountain station under clearer skies than generally prevail at the East, and promises to fulfil the conditions of Mr. Boyden's will. Through a gift of $50,000 from Miss Bruce of New York (who has recently been elected a member of the Astronomical Society of the Pacific), a photographic telescope has been ordered of Messrs. Alvan Clark & Sons, having an aperture of twenty-four inches and a focal length of eleven feet. The library has been increased by 484 volumes and 336 pamphlets. The telegraphic distribution of astronomical intelligence has been continued. In addition to the customary "Annals," twenty-three other publications have appeared during the year.

A very complete and useful 'Account of the Progress in Astronomy in the Year 1886,' by William C. Winlock, taken from the Smithsonian Report for 1886-'87, has recently been issued in separate form.

The Isthmus of Corinth forms the subject of a paper, from a geologic-geographical point of view, by Dr. Alfred Philippson, which fills the entire No. 145 of the *Zeitschrift* of the Berlin Geographical Society, and is accompanied by maps. No. 144, the regular bibliographical close of Vol. 24, is delayed till March 1 for the sake of completeness.

A national "Beatrice Exposition" of feminine arts and industries is to be held in Florence during the months of May and June. Count Angelo De Gubernatis is President of the Executive Committee. The name has been selected with reference to the sixth centenary of the death of Beatrice, who is to be honored by "omaggio alla Donna Italiana, nelle opere del suo ingegno e della sua mano." For the coöperation of natives and resident foreigners a series of fêtes is contemplated—during the first nine days of May to celebrate Dante's falling in love with Beatrice, and on June 9 to commemorate her death. A *Calendimaggio* in costume is named, and *tableaux vivants* illustrating the 'Vita Nuova,' with intermezzos of appropriate song and dance; and an *accademia letteraria* on June 9. The sections of the Exposition will be painting, miniatures, designs, and tapestry; sculpture and engraving; literature; needle-work and embroidery; womanly ornaments; apparatus for instruction (*didattica*); domestic hygiene and food; divers industries.

Lithography was one of the graphic arts which suffered extremely by the rise of photography. It has almost ceased to be thought of as an original art medium, and one needs to be reminded of its past glories, to which the greatest artists of Europe contributed with their own hands. Such a reminder is a catalogue like that of the French, Dutch, German, English, and Russian schools, which Frederick Muller & Co. offer for sale in Amsterdam. It fills seventy-eight octavo pages.

The Johns Hopkins University celebrated on the 22d of February the twelfth anniversary of its opening. In the course of the speeches a letter was read from President Gilman, which was written in a ruined theatre in Taormina, Sicily, and in which he imagined the University assembled in that spot for its annual celebration, and cleverly hit off the characteristic speeches which would be drawn from the several members of the Faculty by the inspiring surroundings. It was announced that, of the various pressing needs of the University for expansion, that of the Chemical Laboratory was to be met by turning over to it for reconstruction the ill-ventilated Hopkins Hall. It was also announced that Mr. Lowell had been obliged, much against his will, to decline to be the first incumbent of the Lectureship of Poetry which was founded last year by the generosity of Mr. and Mrs. Lawrence Turnbull, and that it would be inaugurated next year by Mr. Edmund C. Stedman.

—The *Dedham Historical Register*, a birth of the new year, has one article which every graduate of Harvard will laugh over. It consists of the diary of Nathaniel Ames, the oldest brother of Fisher Ames, and a Harvard Freshman in the year 1758. The extract given covers the whole of that year, and was originally written on an interleaved copy of an almanac which his father had published. The boy entered college at seventeen from Dedham. Wood was brought him from home by Cato (his father's negro), and also his washed linen. He taught school in winter at Dedham some five weeks. The first class-book he mentions is Watts's 'Logic.' He began Homer in September, and Euclid in October of the second year, but did not reach the third book till Christmas. "May 23 the class began Gordan." What was *Gordan?* Probably a tutor. It would seem that the students performed certain services for the head of the institution, for we read: "June 26. President's grass mowed. July 1. Finished the President's hay." Our Freshman wore a wig, for on June 23 he writes: "Left off my wig." His bills were 29*s.* 5*d.* a quarter. In 1754 a college committee had been appointed "to project a new method to promote oratory." Accordingly, declamations are mentioned several times. With the same view plays were acted by the students, but whether publicly is not clear. Entries are of this sort: "July 3. Cato, a play [Addison's], acted at Warren's cham." At that time there were two Warrens in college, Joseph, '59, No. 29, and John, of '60, No. 10. July 6, the entry is, "Cato to perfection." Again, July 14, "Cato more perfect than before." On June 22 the only note is, "Roman father, a play." This play was by William Whitehead, an English dramatist then in high repute, and it was published in 1750. These college dramatic performances are the more noteworthy because they were acted three years before the first theatre was opened in New York, and when Boston would have shrunk in holy horror from such an institution. In the College histories of Prof. Benjamin Pierce and of President Quincy, one can discover no allusion to anything more theatrical than reading the Latin 'Colloquies' of Erasmus.

—But it is in regard to college amusements, pranks, hazing, and indignities to tutors that the old almanac of Ames is at its best. Thus: "April 20. Went a gunning after robins with Hooper." Hooper was head of the class, Ames No. 20. "May 22. Went a fishing with thirteen of my classmates." Thirty-nine was the whole number. The notice of this excursion down the harbor is the longest entry in all the year. Class quarrels were not unknown. The freshman writes: "March 18. Fit with the Sophomores about Cust." What was Cust? "March 20. Had another fight with the Sophomores." "Sept. 12. Hooper [who had sat in the Sophomores' seat ever since July 16] shook a Freshman cu." The meaning of cu is doubtful. In college commons it meant a half-pint of beer, which was allowed per head at breakfast. Or can it have been the cue of the Freshman's periwig? "June 6. Fleeced Mr. Hancock." Hancock was a classmate, and stood No. 6. "June 8. Hoisting of Palmer and Browne." Palmer was No. 6 and Browne No. 27 in Class of '61. In dog-days the boys could not allay their skipping spirits: "Aug. 11. Hedly, Eaton, Dana, Daniel took off the doors." 15th, Hedly and Daniel went to Providence;

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16th, Dana ran off; Eaton paid ten dollars. On the whole, the most curious line is this: "October 9 some examined about Bulraging (*sic*) Monis." Bulraging is a word not found in the *omnium-gatherum* of Dr. Murray except as *bully-rag*, and his earliest citation is 1807. It seems also to have eluded all collectors of Americanisms. Yet it is so used by Ames as to show that it was as current in 1758 as its synonyms bull-doze or haze are in 1890. Dr. Murray will thank Ames for usage three score years older than he and all his colaborers could find. Monis, an Italian Jew convert, was teacher of Hebrew. Four times a week the students must all meet him to copy or construe, or parse, or compose, or read without points his sacred gibberish. They or their forerunners had been in this bondage to him forty years when they *bullragged* him. The ultimate result was his resignation. The immediate result is thus described: "October 18, Palmer ['61, No. 6] and Emerson ['61, No. 9] admonished." The next words are hard to interpret, namely: "Monis Hobs and Fuller degraded Dunbar." "Degraded" meant put down to the foot of the class, and there were students of all the above names then in college. Other gleanings as to Calabogus Club, etc., etc., might be added, each affording new evidence that no future historian of Harvard can be equipped for his work without thorough study of Ames's almanac annotations.

—The January number of the *Nord und Süd* contains an article by Dr. Wolfgang Golther of Munich, one of the most promising of the younger generation of Germanists, which is a significant evidence of the growing influence in Germany of the Norwegian school of mythologists. Dr. Golther openly embraces the creed of that school in supporting the thesis that a large (if not the largest) part of the Edda sagas originated from a mixture of Græco-Roman and Christian with native Norse elements. It will be remembered that this hypothesis, when it was first advanced by Prof. Bugge of Christiania in 1881, called forth a storm of opposition from almost every quarter of the Germanistic world. The very sanctum of Teutonic mythology was proclaimed to have been violated, and no other way of expiation seemed to be left but to shower contempt and indignation on the profane intruder. It now appears that Prof. Bugge has emerged hale and hearty from this critical thunder storm; and if his theory, like most new theories, is not free from extravagance and exaggeration, the fact that the Edda reflects the age of the Viking expeditions, of a time when the Norsemen were in constant and close contact with the Irish, Saxon, and Frankish nations, and continually imbibing foreign conceptions and traditions, can no longer be disputed. A German translation of Bugge's chief work has just appeared, under the title 'Studien über die Nordischen Götter- und Heldensagen' (Munich, 1889; New York: Westermann).

—In a pamphlet on 'The Supreme Court of the United States, and the Schemes for Relieving It,' by Mr. Richard C. McMurtrie of the Philadelphia bar, the author speaks with earnestness, and looks in the right direction—towards certainty in law through uniformity in judicial decisions. He deprecates what has seemed to others an inevitable evil, that of the Federal courts interpreting the law in one way and the State courts in another, so that at the present time the responsibility of common carriers in New York or Pennsylvania may depend entirely upon the jurisdiction into which they are brought; and he resolutely protests against the $5,000 limitation on the right of appeal, which in many cases will practically make one law for the appealable and another for the non-appealable cases. The real trouble with the administration of justice in the Federal courts, as in many of the State courts, is that we have not judges enough to do the work of jurisprudence promptly and thoroughly. To relieve the Supreme Court by cutting off from its jurisdiction all cases below $5,000 is to relieve the cook by going without one's dinner. It can also be carried to any extent, just as a humane master of the house might relieve his cook by dispensing entirely with cooked food. The scheme for making intermediate appellate courts out of the present circuit and district judges is but another attempt to evade the necessity of having judges enough. The evil is indeed of legislative responsibility, and an abiding witness to the incapacity of numerous judiciary committees either to construct a scheme or to carry one through Congress. Mr. McMurtrie's pamphlet goes far beyond this evil, and looks to legislation which will bring both Federal and State courts into one harmonious whole. It is a reprint of a newspaper article, and depends too much upon other articles to which it is a reply, but which are not before the present reader. It is unfortunate that he did not recast it, and make it a complete argument of his case instead of leaving it a fraction of a controversy. Still, those lawyers who have given attention to the subject will do well to heed this contribution to it.

—The writers born of the decade 1840–1850 have the floor in the tenth volume of Stedman and Hutchinson's 'Library of American Literature' (New York: Chas. L. Webster & Co.). The most famous name of all on the list, that of Henry M. Stanley, finds a place in this collection by virtue of literary production rather than distinction. The next most famous personage, Henry George, enters by a double right. Bret Harte is the third, and perhaps Henry James the fourth. As in the previous volume, journalists occupy a large space, if somewhat less prominent than before. To that class the humorists belong exclusively—Bret Harte once more (born in 1839), George Alfred Townsend, George T. Lanigan (a Canadian), Philip H. Welch, and Joel Chandler Harris; the South bearing off the palm as in no other period of our country's history. The Southern renaissance is also marked by George W. Cable in fiction, by Sidney Lanier in poetry. Henry George and Edward Bellamy represent the Socialistic stirrings of the time, and the former, with Profs. W. G. Sumner and Francis A. Walker, the economic movement to which machine politics have offered such a sturdy resistance ever since the war. Another noticeable tendency has been towards the revival of historic studies, and here we have John T. Morse, Henry Cabot Lodge, John Fiske, and Eugene Schuyler. The fiction of the decade has a certain brilliancy; A. S. Hardy, Julian Hawthorne, W. H. Bishop, Mrs. F. H. Burnett, Constance F. Woolson, Sarah O. Jewett, Mary Hallock Foote, Elizabeth S. Phelps, and Blanche Willis Howard being added to the novelists already mentioned. In the poetical column the average is pretty low, and the best could not presume to cast lots for the mantles of the surviving peers of Longfellow and Emerson. That the selections in this volume, in which a great many utterly obscure writers occur, are as readable on the whole as in the preceding volumes, we should hardly affirm.

—In our recent review of Ten Brink's 'History of English Literature,' we neglected to state, in speaking of Chaucer, that the author had already treated exhaustively Chaucer from the linguistic and metrical side, in his 'Chaucers Sprache u. Verskunst' (Leipzig: Weigel, 1884). This monograph is of course indispensable to all who wish to master the subject. We need only add here that not a few of the finer points in Ten Brink's general estimate of Chaucer rest upon data embodied in the monograph. And this leads us to speak of another monograph by Ten Brink, although in a very different field, viz., his 'Beowulf-Untersuchungen' (Strassburg: Trübner, 1888). Not being a *Fachzeitschrift*, the *Nation* cannot possibly do justice to the author's erudition. What is involved in the treatment of such a monograph may be inferred from the circumstance that Möller's review (*Engl. Stud.*, xiii.) fills sixty-eight closely printed pages! We can scarcely hope to give even the main points of Ten Brink's theory. In general we may perhaps say that it is a continuation of the so-called destructive school of Müllenhoff, but with a difference. Whereas Müllenhoff assumed one original with successive interpolations, Ten Brink assumes two independent versions or stories, an amalgamation, and a late interpolation. According to Ten Brink, each one of the districts of early England had a hand in the shaping of the Beowulf poem as we now read it in the Cotton MS. Our advice to our readers is to begin the book at the end, with chap. xv, *Ergebnisse*. As for the theory, whether it will stand or fall, in whole or in part, we are not yet ready with an opinion. Unquestionably our knowledge will be promoted by the investigation; but in general we hesitate. We are almost tempted to repay our author his passing compliment to Sievers, p. 211, and designate his critique as "subtle." Ten Brink has striven conscientiously to account for everything, or nearly everything. And this we are inclined to look upon as a foregone impossibility. It was Lessing who held that the search for truth was more productive than the possession of truth.

BANCROFT'S UTAH.—I.

History of Utah. By Hubert Howe Bancroft. 1540–1887. San Francisco: The History Company. 8vo, pp. xlvii., 808.

THE readers of the *Nation* will hardly need to be reminded that we have appreciated the greatness of the task which Mr. H. H. Bancroft has undertaken (and in great part accomplished) in his histories of the Pacific Coast. A plan which aimed at the preparation of more than forty stout volumes was hardly within the possible compass of one man's life work, and the employment of a bureau of assistants was a recognized necessity. Mr. Bancroft had a fair right to say that so long as the books bearing his name were subjected to such revision and editing that he was willing to be responsible for them, the world had little cause to complain. It should rather be grateful for the library of information it received, and for the unlimited application of wealth and labor to make available to the English reader a great mass of historical material of which much might otherwise be lost. Here was no question of literary reputation in the ordinary sense of the word. There was no claim to a diction that might rival a Gibbon, a Macaulay, or the New England Bancroft. The task was confessedly the more modest one of compilation and editing; and, when so understood, it had an honest and useful place among the notable literary performances of the day.

It seems necessary to take this retrospective view of Mr. Bancroft's labors because the new

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volume on Utah goes beyond the latitude which, even under the liberal rule above stated, an author-editor may use. We doubt if another instance can be found in literature not avowedly fictitious, where the putative author disclaims responsibility for the text which he presents to the world in the first person. Yet this is what Mr. H. H. Bancroft does in his 'History of Utah.'

The book is divided into twenty-eight chapters. The first two, containing thirty-five pages, give a clear and interesting account of the early explorations of the Great Salt Lake basin from Vasquez de Coronado to Frémont. The last three, containing ninety-four pages, give a fair synopsis of the growth of the Territory in population and wealth, and of its agriculture, mining industries, commerce, and social progress. The other twenty-three chapters, containing six hundred and fifty-five pages (and, of course, the great bulk of the book), give us the story of Mormonism, both in its rise in the older States and its transfer and progress in Utah. The history of Utah would be a meagre thing apart from Mormonism, and it was right enough to trace the strange delusion, in doctrine and in development, in the United States and in its missionary propagandism in Europe. The result, however, is that the book is first and chiefly an extended history of Mormonism.

It is this which gives point and significance to the remarkable declaration of the author, in the preface, that

"the story of Mormonism, therefore, beginning with chapter iii., as told in the text, is from the Mormon standpoint, and based entirely on Mormon authorities; while in the notes, and running side by side with the subject matter in the text, I give in full all anti-Mormon arguments and counter-statements."

In defence of this method Mr. Bancroft adds:

"In following this plan I only apply to the history of Utah the same principles employed in all my historical efforts, namely, to give all the facts on every side pertinent to the subject."

In spite of this plea, we must stick to our assertion that the method is unique in historical literature. It is no new thing for a writer to give at length the claims of a party or a sect, either directly by quotation or indirectly by a condensation of statement or argument attributed to them; but Mr. Bancroft does nothing of the sort. In his own proper person he adopts the rôle of bigoted and partisan Mormons, thinking their thoughts, speaking their words, asserting their incredible nonsense, uttering their fanatical enthusiasms, making their absurd criticisms of received forms of the Christian religion and of modern civilization, exalting their champions as saints and martyrs, and vilifying those who oppose them or abandon them.

There are some brief exceptions to the continuous playing of the part, which every rule of literary criticism would declare to be short interpolations, inserted in a previously complete text, and for which the critical reader naturally seeks a motive and an explanation. Of these insertions, two are of considerable extent. In chapter xv., on Mormonism and Polygamy, there is, contrary to the announced rule, an attempt to give in the text and at some length the "attitude and arguments of civilization" respecting polygamy, and "polygamy's reply." In chapter xx., the story of the Mountain Meadows Massacre is told from quite another than the "Mormon standpoint," though it gives the Scotch verdict "not proven" as to Brigham Young's responsibility for that barbarous crime.

When the character of an extended composition is the subject of criticism, it is difficult to illustrate it by extracts sufficiently brief for quotation in a notice like this. Three or four may help to understand the author's "standpoint." In the beginning of chapter iii., when he is introducing the Story of Mormonism, and is enlarging upon the reasonableness of the purpose already quoted from the preface, there is an effort to picture the religious condition of Western New York about the time of the origin of Mormonism. Speaking of the sects of that day, the author says:

"There was among them much true religion, whatever that may be, yet they were all superstitious—Baptists, Methodists, and Presbyterians—there was little to choose between them. Each sect was an abomination to the others; the others were of the devil, doomed to eternal torment, and deservedly so" (p. 37).

In a description of the Mormons celebrating the 4th of July, 1838, at Far West in Missouri, the author says of them:

"They are hated and despised, though they break not the laws of God; they are hunted down and killed, though they break not the laws of the land. . . . They are not idlers, or drunkards, or thieves, or murderers; they are diligent in business, as well as fervent in spirit, yet they are devils; they worship what they choose and in their own way, like the Dissenters in Germany, the Quakers in Pennsylvania, and the Pilgrims from England, yet their spiritual father is Satan" (p. 119).

After telling the story of the murder of Joseph Smith by the mob in Illinois, the author moralizes in this way:

"Whatever else may be said of Joseph Smith, it must be admitted that he was a remarkable man. His course in life was by no means along a flowery path; his death was like that which too often comes to the founder of a religion. What a commentary on the human mind and the human heart, the deeds of those who live for the love of God and man, who die for the love of God and man, who severally and collectively profess the highest holiness, the highest charity, justice, and humanity, higher far than any held by other sect or nation, now or since the world began—how lovely to behold, to write and meditate upon, their disputings and disruptions, their cruelties and injustice, their persecutions for opinion's sake, their ravenous hate and bloody butcheries" (p. 184).

In summing up the character of Brigham Young, and defending him from the charge of enriching himself, through his autocratic power and by questionable means, the author concludes:

"That with all his opportunities for making money honestly and safely, he should put in peril his opportunities and his high position by stooping to such fraud as was commonly practised among United States officials of exalted rank, is a charge that needs no comment" (p. 674).

These quotations are simply fair samples of the tone and spirit of the whole body of the book. There is nothing to absolve the ostensible author from responsibility for the whole as his personal opinion, unless it be the general purpose declared in the preface. He does not even adhere to any form of literary impersonality, but uses the pronoun "I" with rather more than usual frequency. It is inconceivable that any man not himself a Mormon could have adopted the style and tone of the body of the work. If it is quotation, the whole is one unacknowledged quotation. A hypothesis which will naturally account for all the phenomena is, that the chapters under consideration were prepared by a Mormon writer, and that an editor has occasionally inserted a sentence or a paragraph wholly at variance with the continuity of the text, and contradictory of the "standpoint" professedly assumed.

But how about the footnotes which were to give us, side by side with the text, "all anti-Mormon arguments and counter-statements"? No doubt the footnotes contain a considerable mass of quotations from anti-Mormon books, and numerous references by volume and page; but they by no means make up anything like an adequate or connected presentation of "arguments and counter-statements." They are sufficient, however, to display the anomalous and composite character of the book. A writer's footnotes are presumably references to his authorities and the original materials on which the text is based. Here, on the other hand, we have a professed array of notes to offset and rebut the text. It is something like the arguments between *Diabolos* and *Paraclete* found in old sermons, except that here *Diabolos* is given the place of honor and the fair, easy-reading page in small pica, while the exposure is hidden in the minion notes at the bottom, where only industrious students will work their way through the mass of scraps and references which are there collected. Nor is this all, for the footnotes are not consistently written from one standpoint, but contain, here and there, some of the character usual in other books, *i. e.*, enlarging, explaining, or supporting the text.

One of the most notable of these, beginning on p. 250, is an elaborate argument that exposures of Mormonism are of little weight. It begins with saying: "The rôle of traitor is not one which in any wise brings credit to the performer, either from one side or the other. However great the service he may render us, we cannot but feel that he is false-hearted and vile." We do not find "side by side" with this lengthy note any equally full presentation of the diminishing effect upon the credit of Mormon advocates of the indisputable fact that they have practised the dishonest rule of denying whatever they thought might injure their cause. The flagrant example of this was the sweeping and public denial of polygamy by all their leading men for years after the pretended official "revelation" of it to Smith, and culminating in a solemn denunciation of the charge as a libel, by Taylor, afterward Brigham Young's successor, in Europe at a time when he himself had five polygamous wives in Salt Lake City.

The question is one of the comparative weight and value of testimony, and the Mormon leaders have impeached their own by such systematic dishonesty as is above mentioned. As to the "apostates," every man who changes his creed is in one sense an apostate, whether he is a converted Buddhist or Mohammedan, whether, like Cardinal Newman, he has passed from Anglicanism to Romanism, or to agnosticism like Darwin. In such cases, and in the present age of the world, to call them "traitors" and "vile" is empty railing. There are recognized methods of testing the personal credibility and honesty of each witness, and the influence of good or bad motives under which he speaks. Tested in any such way, the exposures of Mormonism do not suffer by comparison with the apologies for it.

A really valuable feature of the work is its bibliography. Both in his prefatory list of "authorities consulted" and in footnotes made up of uncommonly full tables of references, the author has done much to open the way for any competent student of this singular episode in our history. The more's the pity that he has not given us a judicial and impartial summing up of fair conclusions from the enormous mass of material at his command.

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A VICE-QUEEN OF INDIA.

Our Viceregal Life in India: Selections from My Journal, 1884–1888. By the Marchioness of Dufferin and Ava. 2 vols. London: John Murray. 1889.

ONE who should look at England on a map, and then at India, reflecting that the former rules the latter—five times its own numbers in a region larger than Europe (omitting Russia)—will find in these facts an exemplification of the power of mind over matter. The Indian Army is about the size of ours in the United States, and has as little to do with government. That this governmental phenomenon excites so little interest or study in other countries is explicable by its success. The Government is potentially autocratic. The Viceroy is a more powerful personage than his sovereign, or than any European monarch. As his title implies, "The Viceroy and Governor-General of India" combines the majesty of a monarch with gubernatorial functions long detached from the English crown. He also possesses ministerial powers. As Governor he is a member of the Executive Council of Seven, who each represent a department (finance, war, etc.), and have seats in the Legislative Council, which consists of thirteen English and six Hindu members appointed in England. The Executive Council, appointed in England, may be overruled by its chief member, the Viceroy; and though they may appeal to the Secretary of State, the Viceroy is not bound to await a decision from London if he believes the call for action urgent. It is only by travelling some centuries back that any English monarch can be found with equal powers. We need hardly say that most of the viceregal powers lie hidden in the constitutional armory, from which they are not likely to be withdrawn. Under the long peace which has elapsed since the Sepoy rebellion, there may be observed in the Viceroyalty developments corresponding to those of English royalty. The separation in England of the decorative from the political institutions—one power reigning, another governing—has been a tendency in India also. It has only awaited furtherance by ladies competent to relieve their viceregal lords of the social and ornamental functions of their office, to enable the latter to rest more on their ministerial functions. It has long been realized in England that only a wise and gracious man can be trusted with the viceregal sceptre, and it is beginning to be realized that one of his most essential qualifications is to have at his side a wife able to bear worthily the title "her Excellency."

Those acquainted with Indian affairs need not be informed that by their administration the Marquess and Marchioness of Dufferin and Ava have left the viceregal standard higher than they found it. It was this Viceroy's lot to end the bloody tyranny of Theebaw in Burmah almost without bloodshed, and to be welcomed there as a deliverer. It was the glory of the Marchioness to receive the benedictions of the women of India for having founded—collecting the money herself—a national association for supplying female medical aid to the suffering women of India, who cannot receive male doctors. The "Lady Dufferin Association" is now an established institution whose benefits are felt in every part of the vast empire. The Marchioness travelled with her husband to his official durbars in every part of India, establishing branches of her Association, and was alternately brought in contact with the humble and the splendid aspects of Indian life, with the zenana and the court. All hearts and homes, Moslem and Brahman, were open to her—indeed, she has the reputation in Calcutta of having brought about pleasanter social relations between classes, notably by her reception of Mohammedan ladies at the house of Judge Ameer Ali, whose English wife had been frowned on for her alliance by "mercantile" society. These varied experiences were carefully preserved in "her Excellency's" journal, sent regularly to her mother, and are now published in two handsome volumes.

Even were this book less brilliant than it is, it would be welcome. It may be said that there was but one work on India needed—one dealing with the India of to-day—and Lady Dufferin has written it. The ancient literatures opened by the discovery of the Sanskrit, the rich mythology and wonderful history of India, have so absorbed scholars, its economic and political problems so engaged another class of writers, that the every-day life of those millions has received too little attention. Lady Dufferin might have adopted as her motto Emerson's apostrophe to the botanist:

> "Go thou to thy learned task,
> I stay with the flowers of spring;
> Do thou of the ages ask
> What to me the hours will bring."

Four years of viceregal life made a fair springtime, and she has not allowed many of its flowers to pass by her. She tells just what she sees, whether the shaven outcast widow in her weeds, or the gorgeous princes. Some of her pages may appear burdened with gorgeousness, but on careful examination it will be found that, though the costumes and ceremonials alike glitter, they possess symbolical variations.

The distinct value of the book is in its detailed descriptions of the viceregal round, ceremonial and practical, of native customs and costumes, and contrasts of life, Indian and English. "Her Excellency" cared little for the pomp and luxuries of her place compared with its opportunities for observation. She courageously allows her gown to be removed by a native hostess, and a Hindu dress substituted, and squats on the floor "like a Buddha," and dines on unknowables picked out of bowls with her fingers, and even likes it. She is resolute in breaking down barriers between herself and those around her. Government House, Calcutta, was reached by the new Viceroy on December 14, 1884, and on February 10 following his wife writes home:

"The ball was very nice indeed, and I enjoyed it, for at last I do believe I am making a few acquaintances. Hitherto it has been most uphill work. I may talk all through dinner on Monday to some persons, but when I see them on Tuesday, they not only don't speak to me, but I can't feel sure that a gleam of recognition passes over their faces. Well, last night I saw a glimmer of improvement, and at any rate a few of the great lords and ladies (Burra Sahib and Burra Mem Sahib) did speak to me without being driven to it."

Towards the native religions Lady Dufferin's catholicity is not merely of the perfunctory sort due from a representative of her Majesty, who is an official patroness of Protestantism, Romanism, Brahmanism, and Mohammedanism. She really sympathizes with all sincere worshippers. At Chinsurah, where she delivers prizes to school-children, she regrets that some gods should be removed to give her an exalted seat: for "gods, so long as they are objects of faith, should be disturbed for no one" (i., p. 71). In the mosque Jumma Masjid, Delhi, she remarks: "I always do think that a number of Mahometans saying their prayers together is the most devotional sight one can imagine; I don't know any service that can compare with it as an expression of religious fervor" (i., p. 204). The equality of religions which Akbar initiated, but which was followed on his death by an era of strife, has been so firmly reëstablished by England that something like friendliness is appearing between the native temples. Even the banished Buddha has appeared in Hindu temples, as Vishnu has been adopted in some Buddhist temples. To the Christain missionary this may seem chaotic, but Lady Dufferin makes it, rather, kaleidoscopic. At the same time her characteristic humor does not omit the occasional drollness arising out of the singular religious situation:

"I had an afternoon visit from Mr. Broughton, Administrator-General. . . . He mentioned casually that he was trustee for an idol, to which he paid 250 rupees a month. This 'idol' is a sacred stone, and can perhaps scarcely be dignified with the name of 'god,' but the account of it was rather interesting. A deputation was sent to look for two sacred stones in some river, and when they were brought back a meeting was held to decide whether they were really sacred or not. Mr. Broughton had to be present, while a Fakir and some other learned personages squatted on the floor, with a book and the stones before them, and compared them with a real, old, undoubted 'idol' which was brought in for the purpose. This jury gave it against the new candidates, but I suppose the stones appealed, for the verdict was somehow or other reversed, and a suitable throne was procured, upon which the three now sit and receive their monthly stipend." (I., p. 55.)

The extent to which walls of partition that seem adamantine before propagandism are melting before English catholicity, is suggested by the following incident, which is also otherwise notable:

"A native gentleman sent me what they call a 'Dolly,' which is really a tray full of little presents. It was a very interesting one, and he wrote a nice letter with it, saying that we had 'evinced a kindly feeling towards our Eastern customs and the welfare of our women; therefore I venture to send these presents at the earnest request of my wife. The greater part are held auspicious by our women as conducing to the success and long life of their husbands.' One tray contained bouquets and wreaths of flowers, and then there were a quantity of puzzle-boxes, bangles cut in bone, two toilet-baskets covered with cowrie shells, and containing small mirrors, combs, red powder, etc. Mothers present these to their daughters on the occasion of marriage; two large conch shells, one of them a sacred blowing instrument used at marriages, births, etc., and one used at the time of coronation by pouring water from it on the head of the king. 'It dispels all evils where water is drunk out of it or poured on the head.' The red powder is used by Hindu women from the day of their marriage. The bridegroom with his own hand puts this powder on his bride's forehead where the hair is parted, and she always wears it until she becomes a widow. With these things were some models of fish, frogs, serpents, etc., made in clay."

It may be hoped that the words of one who got so near the native heart will weigh when they deplore the evils of Hindu society. In one prize-giving experience, "several of the dolls had to be kept back, as the girls for whom they were destined were being married." She finds it "sad to give a doll as a prize to some poor little creature who, young as she is, is probably on the very verge of matrimony, who may any moment leave her own parents for the tender mercies of a mother-in-law or of an elderly husband, or who, as a child-widow, may be condemned to a sort of outcast existence all the rest of her days." Infant-marriage is the tap-root of a banyan growth of evils; from it results an overpopulation (700 or 800 to the square mile), which is perilously increasing under the civilization that suppresses the wars, diseases, famines, which brought relief in their rough way; and it seems that the offspring of children remain children all their lives, even their deities being dolls. The Government, fol-

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lowing its principle of interfering with religion only so far as humanity demands, finds every mitigation turned to an injury. It has rescued the widow from the flames only to see her made an outcast, and in many cases a compulsory family prostitute. It will pretty surely be compelled to prohibit the marriage of children, and one would say that the better Hindu opinion itself demands that the legal age should be raised somewhat. The sorrows of the little married martyrs themselves were chiefly impressed upon Lady Dufferin in the schools with which she had much to do. And we are glad to note her protest against the addition to those sorrows of European clothing:

"I went to give prizes at a zenana mission. . . . The little Hindu girls are most attractive! They do look such miniature women, with their coil of hair (for ribbon), the jewels on their heads, necklaces, bracelets, and anklets; and then their drapery of different-colored muslins, variously put on. It was most amusing to see them come up for their prizes, but I grieve to say that symptoms of European costume are to be seen among them. I had just dealt out a reward or a bribe to a real little Oriental picture when a horrid calico frock, of a purely English pattern, appeared before me! And, alas, even some who began well ended in patent-leather shoes, over which seven or eight silver anklets fell in the most incongruous manner. . . . I was made a most unwilling accomplice, for I had to give out English cotton jackets, and dolls dressed in the 'height of fashion,' and well calculated to spoil the taste of the rising generation."

"These atrocities," adds Lady Dufferin, "are sent out by kind people at home." It is unfortunate that kindness should sometimes kill people, as the Tasmanians were killed off by European clothing. It is to be feared that the repeated protests in this work will hardly reach the rotund Briton who regards the race as having a hat-and-boot destiny, or the matron who would drape the statue of Innocence with Manchester wool. But the Hindus themselves—their literary men, who wrote the 1,300 books published in India in 1889—will be encouraged by this timely aid in their war against the Philistines. We should be glad to quote many of Lady Dufferin's descriptions of native costumes, and must find room for some dancers:

"The [Bhil] women are good-looking, and are most picturesquely dressed, with large red veils covering their heads and skirts, the latter being generally dark blue, a *very* short jacket just over the bosom, and then a hiatus between it and the petticoat. Their arms are laden with bangles of all colors, and their legs are equally covered with brass ornaments. They held each other around the shoulders with one arm, and moved in lines of twenty, the lines overlapping each other and forming a circle. They sang a wild ditty as they danced, and the step, and the song, and their movements went together most beautifully. The step was like our 'chassé,' after which they beat time with their feet, and bowed down, the one at the end clapping her hands, and the others making a sweeping motion with the arm that was disengaged. Their dusky faces and their red garments, and their wild music and the perfect time and grace of their movements, made this a most striking sight." (I., p. 227.)

It is but just to remark that Lady Dufferin's attention is not entirely devoted to human beings, there being some striking descriptions of curious fruits, birds, and monkeys. We do not feel sure that our few extracts, selected rather for the points touched than for the treatment, have done justice to the wit and charm of the book, and have less care to criticise it. Now and then, especially at Delhi and Agra, where every mosque has its romance, we have felt the need of some historic or legendary perspective to give the descriptions touches in relief. But our guide is resolute against quotation. We verily believe she would write about California without alluding to the Argonauts, or of Australia without mentioning the Golden Fleece. She does, indeed, give an account of Indian conjurers, of which no doubt the cleverest came before her, without indulging marvel-mongers with one improbable story; nor is Madame Blavatsky even mentioned! A book so without pretension, with no moral or political "mission," aiming only to include us all in the home circle which enjoyed the narratives, may fairly be judged by its adequacy for its own modest and friendly ends. For ourselves we have found it entertaining, suggestive, sparkling, and are content to be without space to find fault.

The Story of an Old Farm; or, Life in New Jersey in the Eighteenth Century. By Andrew D. Mellick, jr. With a Genealogical Appendix. Somerville, New Jersey. 8vo, pp. 743. 1889.

THERE is a small and scattered colony whose members, oppressed by the importance and pseudo-dignity of the society found in the great city below the Harlem, prefer to be known as living near New York rather than in New Jersey. They are chiefly youthful as well as foolish, and to those of them who chance to inhabit Somerset County we commend this volume, in the hope, if not the immediate expectation, that they will appreciate the history and the scenery, interesting and frequently striking, of their country homes. To the majority, inheritors by birth or participants by preference of that attractive region, the volume commends itself.

Through the development of a double motive, this is a double book. The author's original intention was to trace the American history of his own and collateral families more particularly as they swarmed from an old stone house and its surrounding acres. Around this central figure as a core has accumulated an interesting and valuable growth of last-century information, which to the general reader is the book. Starting with his landing at Philadelphia in 1735, there is traced the career, actual and probable, of a native of the Palatinate who established himself in 1751 as a tanner and, by necessity, a farmer on this Somerset slope; and his children and those of his immigrant kinsfolk have part in the tale. The attached genealogy shows that of the thousand or so descendants of those Lutheran settlers all have maintained respectability, many have acquired honor, and some have reached distinction, so that their fertile and exemplary ancestors deserve well of the country. Conscious that the public of to-day is less interested in Johannes Moelich as an individual than as a type, the true historical spirit, blossoming from the filial interest that rehabilitated the pioneer, has also restored much of what might have been seen around his and his children's haunts. And using the old farm as an after-dinner speaker does a toast, as a starting point for a ramble in all directions, a sympathetic pen has reproduced so much of colonial life that no reasonable limits will suffice to outline it. Much of it is important, and nearly all is interesting: of the former, for instance, a discussion of the condition of the German masses and the reasons and methods of their emigration in the eighteenth century (chaps. iii, iv.); of the latter, for example, the explanation that the floors of farm-houses were inclined so that the sand, substituted for carpets, might be more easily swept into the hall (p. 17), and the mention of the "Twenty-four Proprietors" who formerly owned and governed East Jersey, as having "a corporate and active existence to this day" (p. 112). It would be of still further interest to know their present function, and where the association can now be addressed.

The ground covered is so enormous that no discussion of any considerable part is possible, and many topics we marked for comment are perforce abandoned. Intemperance, morals, churches, local slavery, the various phases of German immigration, must be passed by with out a word. One may wonder at what is meant by a "gun" fence (p. 236), and be tempted to add the tradition of the spurs to Col. Tilghman's appearance as a bearer of despatches (p. 541); but there is no space.

As warranted by the importance of the subject and the conspicuous part therein borne by New Jersey, the Revolution fills many pages, and nearly every scene of that oft-told drama receives some new and attractive comment in this rehearsal. For instance, we learn that the historical blue and buff was not the Continental uniform, except for Washington, his guard, and some of the generals, but that the line, when uniformed at all, wore colors and facings as diverse as their colonels' fancies. During much of that period Somerset was filled with troops, as the armies watched each other; and the author has well painted the gay reviews and dreary camps, the stirring and the trying life that went on within its borders. It was patriotic service to revive the forgotten skirmishes of Springfield, Plainfield, and Bound Brook, along with the better-remembered affair of Connecticut Farms, where Mrs. Caldwell was slain. Perhaps the most unexpected of these chapters is that wherein the Hessians have lifted from their memory some of the blackness that is so sombre in New Jersey, where, as Mr. Mellick truly states (p. 355), "the very name is still spoken by many with a prolonged hiss-s." He makes a good plea in behalf of those unwilling soldiers, whose odium was first acquired, at the battle of Long Island, by conduct into which they were led by British misrepresentation, and it is very well that a Jerseyman should relieve them of part of their stigma.

This book is so interesting and valuable to the general reader and the local historian that we sincerely hope it will attain, as it deserves, a second edition. With that in view, and not in an offensively critical spirit, the following suggestions are offered. Omit the Moelich genealogy, which may properly be printed separately for those directly interested. Cite, by reference to the copious bibliography, direct authorities for the various statements, giving title, page, and edition. Footnotes would be cumbrous, but references would be acceptable. The author offers to corroborate exactly every statement, but that might involve wearisome correspondence.

A very few further suggestions in the same spirit are offered. The revolt of the Pennsylvania line is described (pp. 528–30) so as to give the impression that the New Jersey troops were also engaged. The incipient mutiny of some of the New Jersey troops later was a very different affair. The statement (p. 533) that Lafayette's command embarked at Trenton on the 1st and reached the Head of Elk on the 3d of March is true, but it is misleading in that it implies that the expedition thither was entirely by water, which was not the case. An odd misprint, due doubtless to an amanuensis, makes (p. 39) the Elector John William as of the House of Newburgh, a hardly allowable Anglicising of Neuburg. One actual error must have followed carelessness of compilation, as where (p. 291) the repulse of Clinton and Parker before Charleston is given as June, 1775, although later (p. 312) it is correctly noted as

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1776. It will interest the author to be assured that the "ewe lamb" *did* die in 1854, as he had heard (p. 403), on the 30th of November. The hint is offered that research will probably show that female suffrage prevailed, at least within certain limits, in the region under discussion in the latter part of the last century. This has escaped record here. With one geographical point, we are done. Did not the province line run from Little Egg Harbor to a point on the Delaware in 41° N. lat., in what is now Warren County, instead of approaching Minisink Island in Sussex? In that case it could not cross the Raritan in Somerset, and the surveyor's stone just west of Somerville (p. 111) must have some other significance.

This excellent book is clearly printed, and has a copious table of contents and a full index.

Mountaineering in Colorado: The Peaks about Estes Park. By Frederick H. Chapin. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co. 1890.

THE first view of the parks of the Rocky Mountains is rather disappointing to many travellers. To most Americans, especially those who inhabit our larger cities, the name park suggests an expanse of greensward covered with a somewhat open growth of trees, while the Englishman looks upon a park as an enclosure stocked with game. In the great enclosed valleys of the Rocky Mountains, however, tree growth is generally confined to the steep slopes of the surrounding mountains, while the game which once abounded in them has long since disappeared, so that the only characteristic of a park they retain is that they are natural enclosures.

Estes Park in northern Colorado is exceptional in possessing an open growth of yellow pine which dots the grassy slopes of the valley, and a few individuals of the larger varieties of game which still roam through the mountains that surround it, while its streams are well stocked with trout. It is the smallest and at the same time the most picturesque and varied of all the Colorado parks, and to ardent lovers of nature possesses the additional attraction that it has not yet been invaded by miners or railroads, but must be reached by twenty-five miles' staging over steep, though by no means dangerous, mountain roads. The fact that a large portion of the valley is controlled by an English company, whose possession of a few thousand acres of land (of little value for agricultural purposes) has served as a text for Congressional declaimers upon the dangers our country runs from being bought up by British land-grabbers, has contributed in no small measure to the preservation of its natural beauty. The little hotel built by this company in full view of the imposing mass of Long's Peak, and a few outlying ranches provided with log houses and tents, afford adequate and reasonable accommodation for the summer boarder from the East, while the frugal-minded farmers from the adjoining agricultural districts of Colorado camp out in the open air along the mountain brooks that run through the valley.

The praises of Estes Park were sung some fifteen years ago by that enthusiastic Englishwoman, Miss Bird, whose imagination clothed with attributes of the most elevated nature the rude mountaineer who guided her in her not very extensive explorations among its mountains. Few visitors penetrate very far into the mountain masses that surround the valley, contenting themselves for the most part with the many excursions to valleys and cañons which radiate out from it, while the more ambitious make the ascent of Long's Peak, which, though not dangerous, is sufficiently difficult and exciting. Mr. F. H. Chapin, an enthusiastic member of the Appalachian Mountain Club, and who had already had some Alpine experience in Switzerland, recently spent the better part of two summers in Estes Park, and made a systematic exploration of all the mountain peaks surrounding it, many of which had probably never been climbed since the early days when this region was surveyed by Government geologists.

Accounts of some of these ascents were contributed from time to time to the journal of the Appalachian Club. They are now written out in more complete form, illustrated by excellent process reproductions of photographs, over fifty in number, taken by the author's own camera and printed in a most charming little volume of 160-odd pages under the auspices of the Club. Mr. Chapin's account of his various ascents is written in a simple and unaffected narrative form, which is perhaps less dignified than if more impersonal; but, as he tells us in his preface, this style is customary in the literature of moutaineering, and it carries with it the impress of truth by its simplicity, and by the absence of blood-curdling adventures that are apt to cast a certain shadow of doubt upon the absolute accuracy of many older travellers' tales. Nevertheless, his ascents were by no means barren of incident, hardship, and even danger.

It is particularly interesting to note how the Rocky Mountains and the Swiss Alps compare in grandeur and attractiveness in the mind of a mountaineer who is equally familiar with either. The charm of contrast between the brilliant verdure of the Alpine pastures and the dazzling whiteness of the névés and glaciers is naturally wanting in the drier climate of the Rocky Mountains, but it appears from Mr. Chapin's account that the vertical face of granite which surrounds Long's Peak on all sides but one, reaching a maximum altitude of 2,000 feet, and "as smooth as the side of Bunker Hill Monument," is unequalled in Switzerland, even in the neighborhood of the famous Matterhorn, whose general slopes, though appearing so nearly perpendicular from below, really stand at an angle of 40°, while the greatest extent of nearly perpendicular cliffs on its sides is only 500 feet.

Mr. Chapin's observations are not confined, however, to inanimate nature, but include many interesting facts with regard to the animal and plant life of the region. His greatest feat, and one of which he is justly proud, was the photographing a band of Rocky Mountain sheep, one of the shyest of wild animals, while facing him at a distance of about a hundred feet. He also took a photograph of a huge silver-tipped grizzly bear at about two hundred yards distance. The volume closes with a list of the flowers of Estes Park collected during the months of July, August, and September by his wife, to whose memory this little volume is dedicated.

Such narrations fulfil a useful purpose, not only in revealing truthfully the natural beauties of our land, but in teaching many, who otherwise might not know, how best to appreciate them.

The Lily Among Thorns: A Study of the Biblical Drama entitled the Song of Songs. By William Elliot Griffis, D.D., Pastor of the Shawmut Avenue Congregational Church, Boston, Mass., and author of 'The Mikado's Empire.' Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

To write a popular exposition of the Song of Songs from the standpoint of the modern scholar—this was a good thing to do if it could be done well. Dr. Griffis has felt himself under the necessity of expanding his criticism as much as possible, as if he had set out to write a sizable book; and, as if lacking confidence in the intrinsic merits of the natural interpretation of the poem, he has heaped on them extravagant praises, fearing, apparently, that otherwise they could not successfully rival the attractions of the allegorical interpretations of the past. Far too much stress is laid on the character and career of Solomon, which are of the least imaginable significance: he is simply the typically magnificent and sensual king. Yet a whole chapter is given to him and a good part of another, "Historic Characters in the Poem," one of whom is Abishag! It is quite possible that the relation of this Shunammite to Solomon in the first book of Kings may have suggested the situation in the Song of Songs, but this hardly justifies calling Abishag an historical character in the poem. Dr. Griffis's account of Abishag's "nursing" of King David is unwittingly humorous; and so in general is his treatment of the moralities of David and Solomon. He is in a strait betwixt two—the plain meaning of the narratives, and the conventionally pious reverence for those Hebrew kings. He lets "I dare not" wait upon "I would" with a perplexity that appeals to our sympathies. At one time he brings a railing accusation against Solomon; at another he argues that his harem was an ornamental show, and that he was perhaps not really much more married than the Sultan of Turkey or the late Brigham Young. We are expected to believe that in his youth he was a model of all the virtues, no allowance being made for the *tendency* of the Old Testament histories. His general praise of David does not perfectly agree with his specific statements, and still less with the estimate of Renan in the second volume of the 'History of the People of Israel.'

There are six chapters introductory to the text of the poem, which is given in the Revised Version. Of these the most valuable is that on the dramatic structure of the poem, in which Dr. Griffis is substantially at one with Renan, Réville, Dr. Noyes, and the run of modern critics. The chapter on the "History of the Book" is unsatisfying. Dr. Griffis seems to stand in dread of any plain, straightforward statement of his matter. On page 119 there is a serious mistake: "Theodoret of Syria, who died A. D. 457," is represented as denying the allegorical theory of the book, whereas he was one of the most ardent defenders of this theory. He is apparently confounded with Theodore of Mopsuestia, against whom and other naturalist critics Theodoret projected his defence. Dr. Griffis's statement that, since the time of Theodoret, there have not been wanting Christian scholars to deny the allegorical character of the poem, will hardly bear examination. There was no denial of the allegory from the fifth century to the sixteenth, when it was made by Castellio, one of several heretics whom John Calvin took in hand; but the real beginning of the modern appreciation of the poem was with Grotius in the next century. In the looseness of Dr. Griffis's phrasing, his admirable interpretation has a more orthodox appearance than it can rightly wear.

By far the most valuable part of Dr. Griffis's book is Part II., which contains the text of the poem, without the misleading chapter-heads and glosses of the King James translation, but with explanatory footnotes and indications of the parts belonging to the *dramatis personæ*. Dr. Griffis does not claim for these indications more than a

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fair degree of certainty. His arrangement does not differ substantially from that of Réville or that of Dr. W. R. Smith in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' One of the most doubtful parts is the address to the Shulamite at the beginning of the seventh chapter, which is attributed to Solomon by Réville and other critics, to the court ladies by Dr. Griffis. In his commentary further on he suggests certain changes in the translation which have much ingenuity, but are too evidently the result of a desire to conform the wording of the poem to the exigencies of the modern prurient prude.

Part III. is a commentary on the text. It is long drawn out and much too florid and fantastical, but it contains much valuable and interesting matter. Of the book as a whole it is to be regretted that it was not made simpler and more brief. Its general purpose is worthy of all commendation, for it is to rescue the Song of Songs alike from the absurdities of the allegorists and the importations of sensuality, when, in fact, its *motif* is singularly high and pure—the praise of a country maiden for resisting the blandishments of the most magnificent of kings. Dr. Griffis does not discuss the date of the poem, but incidentally he thrusts it back nearly to Solomon's time. Wide is the range of critical opinion; Dr. W. R. Smith assigning it to the tenth century B. C., Kuenen to the ninth. The opinion of Graef that it was written about 230 B. C. is "ingenious," says Dr. Smith, "but nothing more." But this was the opinion of the late Michael Heilprin, whose judgment of the philological considerations which are most insisted on was not likely to be fanciful or unsound.

The Science of Metrology; or, Natural Weights and Measures. A Challenge to the Metric System. By the Hon. E. Noel, Captain Rifle Brigade. London: Edward Stanford. 1889.

THE metric system is now supposed to be taught in the arithmetic course in every school. If it were well taught—say, if a quarter of an hour twice a week for half a school year were intelligently devoted to it—the pupils would for ever after be more familiar with millimetres, centimetres, metres, and kilometres, with grammes and kilogrammes, with ares and hectares, and with litres, than they are ever likely to be with the English units. Who, except an occasional grocer, can guess at a pound within two ounces; or how many, besides engineers and carpenters, can distinguish seven-eighths of an inch from an inch at sight? Yet these are things easily taught. But schools will gradually get better conducted, and foreign intercourse seems destined before very long to receive an almost sudden augmentation; so that the metric system will pretty certainly become more and more familiar, and there may be expected to be some practical movement towards its use in trade. It is quite within the bounds of possibility that, even in a country with as little governmental initiative as ours, fashion may lead to the partial superseding of the old weights and measures, just as the avoirdupois pound superseded the Troy and merchants' pounds, as ells and nails have given place to yards and inches, as lasts and stones, firlots, kilderkins, long tons, great hundreds, and innumerable other units have disappeared within this century. If the litre, the half-kilo, and the metre were only not all severally greater than the quart, the pound, and the yard, there might be shops to-day where the keepers would affect to be unacquainted with English weights and measures.

There is little real difficulty in changing units of weight and bulk, were there any positive motive for it, for the things they weigh and measure are mostly used up within a twelvemonth. But with linear and square measure it is otherwise. The whole country having been measured and parcelled in quarter sections, acres, and house-lots, it would be most inconvenient to change the numerical measures of the pieces. Then we have to consider the immense treasures of machinery with which the country is filled, every piece of which is liable to break or wear out, and must be replaced by another of the same gauge almost to a thousandth of an inch. Every measure in all this apparatus, every diameter of a roll or wheel, every bearing, every screw-thread, is some multiple or aliquot part of an English inch, and this must hold that inch with us, at least until the Socialists, in the course of another century or two, shall, perhaps, have given us a strong-handed government.

We can thus make a reasonable prognosis of our metrological destinies. The metric system must make considerable advances, but it cannot entirely supplant the old units. These things being so, to "challenge" the metric system is like challenging the rising tide. Nothing more futile can well be proposed, unless it be a change in the length of the inch. Nevertheless, there is a goodly company of writers to keep the Hon. Capt. Noel in countenance in conjoining these two sapient projects. None of these gentlemen supports the constructive parts of the other's propositions; but they are unanimous against the metric system and the existing inch.

Mr. Noel's system is nearly as complicated and hard to learn as our present one, with which it would be fearfully confused, owing to its retaining the old names of measures while altering their ratios. Thus we should have to learn that 2⅛ feet would make a yard, 4 miles a league, 5 feet a fathom, 625 acres a square mile, 1.953125 cubic ells a cubic yard, 216 cubic inches a gallon, 24 ounces a pound, etc. But it is not intended that this complication shall last for ever, for this lesson, once digested, is to be followed by a clean sweeping away of the decimal numeration and the substitution of duodecimals. Mr. Noel enumerates sixty-eight advantages of his proposal, among them the following: "Mile, one-quarter hour's walk, better than kilometre"; "cubic foot worthier base than cubic decimetre"; "old London mile restored." The scheme is not without merit, and might have been useful to Edward I. Even at this day it must at least have afforded some agreeable occupation to its ingenious and noble author, not to speak of the arithmetical practice.

The Industrial Progress of the Nation. By Edward Atkinson, LL.D., Ph.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1890.

THIS volume is a reprint, with some additions, of the striking series of articles recently contributed by Mr. Atkinson to the *Century Magazine* and the *Forum*. Upon this account it is hardly necessary to do more than call attention to the fact that they may be obtained in book form. Unfortunately the shape of the volume is excessively awkward; and the frequent repetitions of facts and conclusions, unobjectionable in a series of magazine articles, becomes here offensively conspicuous. But if these blemishes are overlooked, the reader will be rewarded by a rich store of information ingeniously arranged and forcibly stated. To us the most interesting feature of the collection is the manner in which Mr. Atkinson has reached his conclusions. We cannot but regard both his premises and his reasoning as frequently wrong, and yet his conclusions are in the main unassailable. This remarkable result is due chiefly to the fact that he is not led astray by materialistic influences, but recognizes the fact that the supreme purpose of human life is the development of individual capacity and character through the struggle for existence. This truth is, of course, incompatible with the pseudo-democratic dogma of the equal desert of all men, and, when supplemented by the economic law that the increase of capital tends, through modern command of natural forces, to the relative increase of wages and decrease of interest, furnishes a skeleton key with which many formidable bolts may be turned. The key may not always fit the lock with logical precision, but it nevertheless opens the door.

The position of Mr. Atkinson is that of reasoned optimism. He has "come to the definite conclusion that, while the power of mankind to consume the products of the earth is limited, the source from which man may draw satisfaction for his material wants is practically unlimited." Not only is this true, but there is also a higher law leading towards an equitable distribution of these products. It is impossible for us to consider the elaborate argument with which Mr. Atkinson supports his position, but we may say that to a material extent it rests upon a rather shadowy basis in assuming that we are about to succeed in supplying ourselves, from the unlimited reservoir of nitrogen contained in the atmosphere, with an abundance of the most expensive and most important element in our food. On the other hand, his demonstration of the misuse of our present blessings in the injudicious selection and wasteful preparation of the principal articles of our diet is extremely practical as well as convincing. Altogether fascinating is the account of his ingenious invention, the "Aladdin cooker," whereby the people of the United States may economize in the preparation of their food to the extent of five cents apiece per day, or about one billion dollars annually. Here, certainly, is "wealth beyond the dreams of avarice."

The conclusions of Mr. Atkinson must be peculiarly exasperating to the "Christian Socialists," so called. He is as good a Christian as any of them, and a strong spirit of benevolence pervades his writings, but he defends the institution of property, even in land. He rejects Ricardo and repudiates Malthus, but he deprecates the interference of Government with individual freedom. Of what avail is it, the professional philanthropist may sadly cry, to have escaped from the logical trammels of the gloomy science of political economy, only to proclaim the effete doctrine that men must take care of themselves instead of being taken care of by the State! The vision of the world revealed by Mr. Atkinson is more magnificent than aught conceived by the Anarchists of Chicago or the Nationalists of Boston, but it is a world fitted for the habitation of human nature as we know it, somewhat improved and developed, to be sure, but still the same, and not the abode either of licentious demons or sensualized angels.

Die Begründung des deutschen Reiches durch Wilhelm I. Vornehmlich nach den preussischen Staatsacten. Von Heinrich von Sybel. Munich: R. Oldenburg; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. xiv., 428; xi., 545. 1889.

OF the first two volumes of Sybel's 'Founding of the German Empire,' which appeared in

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November last, already fifty thousand have been sold. This success, which is quite unparalleled in the annals of the German book-trade, and has been rarely achieved in Europe except by a popular French novel, shows the eagerness with which the work of the distinguished historian was anticipated and the general interest which it has excited. This lively anticipation was due to two causes: first, to the author's preëminent fitness for the task which he had undertaken, and, secondly, to the fact that he was known to have access to original sources in the archives of Prussia, Hanover, Hesse Cassel, and Nassau, as well as in the state papers and diplomatic correspondence of the Foreign Office at Berlin, thus enabling him to follow from day to day, and often from hour to hour, every movement of Prussian politics and every counter-movement of its adversaries, and to give an absolutely authentic narration of the course of events.

But still more important in accounting for the impetus which carried the work in so short a time into the highest popular favor, is the fact that when it was published it did not disappoint, but rather exceeded, the public expectation. Sybel nowhere endeavors to conceal his Prussian and National Liberal convictions and sympathies; at the same time, he never permits them to warp his judgment or to obscure his vision. He is neither blind to the faults and follies of his political friends, nor incapable of seeing and recognizing honorable and patriotic motives in the actions of his political foes. As an historian he is superior to all party affiliations. He is also free from every taint of chauvinistic prejudice and vanity, and distinguishes himself in this respect very advantageously from Heinrich von Treitschke, who, in the fourth volume of his 'Deutsche Geschichte' (Leipzig: Hirzel, 1889), covering the period from 1830 to 1840, confesses that he writes exclusively for Germans, and really thinks that this narrow point of view is something to be proud of. Since the war of 1870 and the rapid advancement of Germany to a foremost place among the great Powers of Europe, such aberrations of patriotism have become endemic among German authors and publicists, who find it almost impossible to speak peaceably of other peoples. Their national sentiment is like new wine in the first stages of fermentation, which, not having yet worked itself clear and mellow and settled upon the lees, goes to the head. It is highly creditable to Sybel that his strong love of country and sincere enthusiasm for the fatherland never degenerate into this craze. While writing as a German and from a German point of view, he never panders to these passing whims and conceits, but is keen to detect and expose the inherent defects and weaknesses of the German character which have hitherto stood in the way of national unity and strength. In his judgment of public affairs, he combines the profound erudition of the scholar with the practical experience of the politician, and thus realizes the conditions essential to the ideal historian.

The first volume begins with more than a hundred pages of "Retrospects," divided into six sections, entitled respectively "Oldest Time," "Austria and Prussia," "Foreign Domination and War of Emancipation," "First Years of the Federal Diet," "Effects of the July Revolution," and "Frederick William IV." This introduction is a model of clearness, comprehensiveness, and condensation. One can affirm with justness (and there is no higher reach of praise) that it is fully equal to similar summaries by Ranke, who was an acknowledged master in this sort of general survey and succinct description and delineation. Especially admirable is the sketch of that bundle of heterogeneous and contradictory qualities, the brilliant, bungling, personally fascinating, politically fatuous monarch, the mediæval romanticist on a modern throne—Frederick William IV.

The first attempt to achieve German unity was the revolution of March, 1848, and with this event Sybel's history, properly speaking, begins. The effort was, of course, an utter failure, so far as the realization of this object was concerned, and the chief cause of the failure was the political immaturity of the German people. But it is no disgrace either to an institution or to an individual to be in advance of the age; and the National Assembly of Frankfort holds this honorable position in history. The second volume closes with the Diet of Princes which convened at Frankfort, August 17, 1863, under the presidency of the Emperor of Austria. That the King of Prussia held himself aloof from this august assembly was due solely to the energetic opposition of Bismarck, whose conduct on this occasion distinctly foreshadowed the far-sighted policy which led to the expulsion of Austria from Germany and the final establishment of the German Empire.

It is foreign to our present purpose to enter into a detailed discussion of the two volumes now before us. The third volume is already in type, and the remaining fourth and fifth volumes will appear during the course of the current year. We shall then take occasion to give a more extended review of the entire work, which concludes with the opening of the first German Parliament, March 21, 1871, and the promulgation of the Constitution of the German Empire. We close our present remarks with this excerpt, embodying Sybel's estimate of the Emperor William:

"He was a confessing Christian who, with simple-minded conviction, accepted the creed of his ancestors. Neither a doubting philosopher, like Frederick the Great, nor a liturgist or theosophist, like Frederick William IV., he never aspired to become a church reformer. His piety was in accord with Gospel teaching, without sound of trumpets, neither of sorry countenance; without arrogant positiveness and intolerance. But it was the staff of his life, the solace of his sufferings, the compass of his conduct. His faith gave him an unconditional trust in God, which filled his whole being and upheld him in all his troubles. . . . He was thus conscientious to timidity in every deliberation, absolutely fearless in danger. Nor was his the chivalric courage of excited nerves or ambition: the word fear or danger had absolutely no meaning for him. He strode through life never despairing, never vaunting, always in a perfect equipoise. He was not of the men of genius or of a demoniac nature who either by their superior equipment trace new paths for their century, or with irresistible passion thrust themselves and their peoples into fearful abysses. Not even bright in the sense that his elder brother was bright, can one call him. But he was, what a contemporary says of Rudolph of Hapsburg, an efficient (*ausrichtiger*) man. His whole being was centred in, and fitted for, practical work; he had by nature the gift to conceive the attainable, and an unbiassed clearness of comprehension which asserted itself more particularly in an almost unerring judgment of men. Add to this a rare combination of firmness and flexibility of mind which characterizes the practical statesman as contrasted with the doctrinaire. To the end of his days he remained unswerving in his conservative principles, but without reluctance recognized that, with changing circumstances, the means of preserving power must likewise change, and that progressive reform is the enduring condition of such preservation. As was natural, he was convinced of the necessity of strong kingly power in a commonwealth founded by its rulers, composed of heterogeneous provinces, and surrounded by jealous neighbors."

La Passione di Gesù Cristo: Rappresentazione sacra in Piemonte nel secolo XV. Edita da Vincenzo Promis. Turin: Fratelli Bocca. 4to, pp. xxv., 532.

THE early development of the drama in Italy does not present as much interest as it does in some other countries. Documents relating to the liturgical origin of the drama are almost wholly wanting; and while in France, for example, it is possible to trace with reasonable completeness the growth of the drama from the simple service of the church to the complicated mysteries and the secular drama evolved from them, in Italy such process cannot be traced, and no such regular organic development took place. It is true that in Italy, as elsewhere, the origin of the drama was in the service of the Church, but it does not seem to have developed early (as in France) into a religious drama in the vernacular. There are vague notices of a religious drama performed at Padua in 1243, and a more detailed account of another at Cividale (Friuli) in 1298. This latter was a representation of the Passion, Resurrection, Ascension, Advent of the Holy Ghost, and Last Judgment, and until lately was the only instance known in Italy of the cyclical drama so common in France under the name of mystery.

In Italy from the church service was developed in Umbria in the thirteenth century the dramatic *lauda* (hymn), or *divozione*, which spread into Tuscany, where, in the fifteenth century, it assumed the form of the *sacra rappresentazione*. These may be compared to the French miracle plays which they resemble in many points.

It has always seemed strange that the influence of France, which was so profound during the Middle Ages, did not produce in Italy any imitation of the *mystères* of the fifteenth century. The recent discovery of such an imitation is therefore of great literary interest, and fills a gap hitherto existing in the history of the Italian drama. The work in question, "La Passione di Gesù Cristo," was discovered among the Ashburnham manuscripts recently acquired by the Italian Government, and was purchased by Lord Ashburnham from the notorious G. Libri. The drama contained in the MS. was written by an anonymous author (perhaps the Frate Simone, some sermons by whom appear at the beginning and end of the acts), and performed in 1490 at Revello, a town belonging to the Marquisate of Saluzzo in Piedmont. The enormous length of the play (it fills 542 large quarto pages of print) required three days for its performance, as was the case also with the French *mystère de la Passion*, from which the Italian drama does not differ materially in contents. It opens with the Council in Heaven in which the redemption of man is determined upon, and closes with the appearance of Christ, after his resurrection, to Mary Magdalene. The usual sources (apocryphal gospels, legends, etc.) are employed to supplement the Gospel narrative; and certain episodes, the raising of Lazarus (arranged for acting as a separate play if desired), etc., are treated in great detail. The most interesting of these apocryphal interpolations is that containing the debate between Christ and Satan concerning the redemption of man (p. 226).

The drama is in verse of irregular metre—seven to fifteen syllables, with rhyme in couplets and with occasional lyrical passages. To assist the memory of the performers, the couplet is always divided at the end of a speech. A similar proceeding is found in the French 'Miracles de Nostre Dame,' recently published by

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the Société des Anciens Textes Français. The language of the drama is Italian, but mingled with it are many dialectic forms. The author confesses at the end of the work that he has written his play in a language little used by him, and says it is not strange if he has not been able to do his work well. Why he should have felt it necessary to write in Italian for an uncultivated audience accustomed to their own dialect, it is not easy to see. It was probably a concession to the court of the Marquis Louis II., before whom it was performed, and to the crowd of strangers expected from other parts of Italy. At all events, it is an interesting proof of the prevalence of the literary language among the people at that early date.

The intrinsic value of the play is not great, although some of the lyrical passages are not devoid of beauty. The same realistic treatment is observed as in the French *mystères*. For example, Christ is called upon to sing when mocked by his captors, and various popular songs of the sixteenth century are suggested to him (one is a French song, "Matre doxa sor de bon ayre.")

After long remaining unknown, this precious work has recently been published in the most sumptuous manner, which unfortunately will place it beyond the reach of the ordinary student. The firm of Bocca Bros., booksellers to the Queen, wishing to present her Majesty with a proof of their devotion, chose this unique monument of Piedmontese literature, and reproduced it in an *édition de luxe* of 200 copies. The volume is magnificently printed upon hand-made paper, with wide margins, and a facsimile of two folios of the MS. is given. A too brief introduction by the editor, who is librarian of the Royal Library at Turin, gives an account of the MS. and the circumstances of the performance of the drama. The questions raised by the language of the work are passed over in silence, and no glossary of dialectic forms has been given. In spite of these deficiencies, all students of Italian literature will be grateful to the publishers for a work which reflects great honor upon the Italian press.

Great Cities of the Republic. The Story of Boston: A Study of Independency. By Arthur Gilman. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889. Pp. viii, 507. 8vo.

Two only of the three periods into which the history of Boston may be naturally divided have an adequate treatment in this work. In respect to these two, moreover, Mr. Gilman has told the political history of the colony and Province of Massachusetts Bay, rather than that of its principal town. But it should be acknowledged that to separate the one from the other is a difficulty which confronts all historians of Boston. During the first century and a half of its existence the town exerted a controlling influence throughout New England, while, in the latter part of this time, measures of the first importance to the thirteen colonies were initiated in its town meetings. This part of its history, however, has been so fully told and is so familiar that it might well have been treated very briefly in a work of this kind, and the space gained might have been devoted to portraying the various changing phases of the social, intellectual, and religious life of the town, and especially to telling the story of its commerce and its industries. This, we readily grant, would have been by far the more difficult task; but if it had been done, Mr. Gilman's book would have had a value which it does not now possess. As it is, he simply rehearses the well-worn narrative of the formation of the Massachusetts Company, and the struggles of the people first for their rights under the charter and finally for independence. There is, of course, interspersed some account of the peninsula and its changes with the growth of the town, and there are occasional references to the social life.

With the siege of Boston Mr. Gilman's "story" practically closes, for he has barely touched upon the history of the third period, the last hundred years. The only topics of this time treated, except in the most general way, are the change of the form of government and the mayoralty of Josiah Quincy. The book wears a very attractive appearance, with numerous well-chosen illustrations and maps, and has an excellent index. It is written in an easy, flowing style, which at times has a quaint and Scriptural flavor that lends itself very agreeably to an account of the doings of men in the seventeenth century. There is a lack of life and picturesque incidents, however, which might easily have been supplied. It would, of course, be unjust to expect absolute accuracy, and the author is unusually accurate and painstaking. Still, a few errors have crept into his pages. He repeats, for instance, the old statement that Sir Richard Saltonstall was descended from a Lord Mayor of London who was, in fact, his uncle. The Concord philosopher, A. Bronson Alcott, is called Olcott, in text and index. Joshua Bates gave a hundred, not fifty, thousand dollars to the Public Library, and surely it is an anachronism to call the Salem of Revolutionary days "the sleepy town."

Death No Bane. London: Sampson Low & Co. 1889.

UNDER this disguising title appears a new translation of the first book of Cicero's 'Tusculan Disputations.' The translator, Mr. Robert Black, late of Pembroke College, presents as an excuse for his work his belief that he has had but one predecessor (anonymous, 1840) in this particular field. We can name three others: G. A. Otis, Boston, 1839; P. A. Nuttall, London, 1841; Dr. A. P. Peabody, Boston, 1886. The newest thing in Mr. Black's version is, perhaps, his rendering of *judices*, in Socrates's speech, by the phrase "my lords," but this is typical of his whole work. It is disfigured by modern slang and colloquialisms, which are entirely out of place in a book of this serious nature, whatever may be their value in the interpretation of ancient writings of a different sort. The sentences, also, although in the main faithfully rendered, are frequently so long as to be wearisome and obscure. Mr. Black should have remembered that the English language is not richly enough inflected to bear the burden of sentences of equal length with those in Latin and Greek. The translation is not divided into the chapters of the original, and is accordingly nearly useless as a work of reference. It is followed by about seventy pages of notes, which are mainly the commonplaces of old-fashioned dictionaries of biography.

For instance, on the state of Lacedæmon we have little but the valuable information that Lacedæmon was the son of Zeus and Taygete, married Sparta, and gave his name to the country. There is scarcely a word upon the subject of philosophy, but we are told that Pembroke College has an orrery similar to the *sphæra* of Archimedes. We hear also that Demosthenes was the "easy first" of Athenian orators, that Socrates performed the "happy despatch" upon himself, and that Æacus was raised to the "judicial bench" in Hades by a "job" perpetrated by his father Zeus. Mr. Black insinuates here and there that he himself is a cold-hearted cynic; we should hardly have believed it of the writer of these words: "In 1795 (and not before) a heartless, cold-blooded attempt was made to deprive 'the blind old man of Scio's rocky isle' of the posthumous fame he had earned over all the world as the author of both *Iliad* and *Odyssey;* and a pundit named F. A. Wolf issued his *Prolegomena* to discredit a belief and a fame which had endured for nine centuries or more." On another page we read that Lycurgus "is said to have had the honor of becoming acquainted with Homer." Mr. Black kindly states that his book "is not intended to be merely of assistance to students of Latin, but also—and chiefly—of use to English readers innocent" of that language. It seems scarcely right to offer to defenceless innocents such lore as these notes present without a warning against its traditionary nature.

The book is printed on heavy paper with wide margins and white cover, and the typework is very creditable to the Chiswick Press.

A Japanese Boy. By Shiukichi Shigemi. New Haven: E. B. Sheldon & Co.

IN a neatly printed and bound volume of 128 pages, bearing the above title, a student in Yale College tells the story of his early life in Japan. It is a cleverly conceived and well-written book. Numerous as are descriptions of Japan, and even of the social life of the people, there are very few natives who have attempted, in a foreign language, to lift the veil of private life and let the people speak for themselves. The charm of this unassuming little book is its utter freedom from anything stilted or pretentious. It is noticeable that though the author is not of the old samurai (or gentry) class, but the son of a merchant, it never occurs to him to pass himself for anything else than what he is. In other words, he realizes fully that the day of democracy has come to Japan—as well as that Americans have slight regard for mere rank or pretensions that have no basis in personal merit. In his fourteen chapters he pictures vividly school and home life, diet, punishment, bath-houses, evenings at home with dancing and music, actors and theatres, the old castle, angling, New Year's day, kite-flying, holidays, religious festivals and ceremonies, and many other matters of interest. His style is bright and lively, though showing the water-marks (as indeed does that of almost all Japanese who write English) of Peter Parley. His command of a vocabulary at once copious and exact is extraordinary, and is even better attained, we imagine, by an alien who has mastered English by long and patient book-translation than by a native. We have looked for Japanese idioms in Mr. Shigemi's English, but, except the use of "fishes" where we should use "fish," we do not find any. On page 68 he speaks of seeing a "stork"—in this, possibly, following the great crowd of foreign writers; for of the 365 birds common in, and the sixteen species peculiar to, Japan, the only stork known in Japan is a rare bird which few persons, even ornithologists, have seen. Yet it may be that Mr. Shigemi's stork was the real bird, *Ciconia Boyciana* Swinh., called by the Japanese *kodzuru* (little crane), though most probably it was the egret, or *sagi*. In other words, as a rule, Mr. Shigemi, though writing in a chatty, delightful way his boyhood's memories, is extremely accurate. Though some of the customs portrayed are local and not national, his book may be safely recommended as the best picture of home life

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among the middle classes in Japan yet produced, and well worthy of a place in all our libraries. In this respect it has a value out of proportion to its modest size and claims.

The Scotch-Irish in America. First Congress, 1889. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.

IT is surprising that so little has hitherto been done to trace the history of that remarkable race which established its institutions throughout the great upland region of Pennsylvania and the Southern States. It has been to this region what the Puritans were to New England and the West. Its great men and its great achievements are numberless, and the purity and vigor of the strain seem yet undiminished. For the purpose of recalling a glorious past and encouraging an honorable pride, a congress of the race was called in May, 1889, at Columbia, Tenn., resulting in the formation of a Scotch-Irish Society. The proceedings of this congress and the addresses delivered before it are now presented in the volume before us, which we commend to all who are interested in the study of neglected portions of our history. It is of course only a beginning, but the vein is so rich that its further working is certain. The New England branch of the race is barely mentioned, but its annals alone would furnish an abundance of valuable material.

The permanency of the Scotch-Irish type is strikingly proved by the testimony of the Rev. John Hall of this city. When in this country as a delegate in 1867, he pointed out a man in the audience whom he had never seen before, and declared—correctly as it proved—that he was of the McKee family of Ulster. In his address at this congress he said: "As I looked over the faces of the people here yesterday, I could hardly keep the tears from my eyes as they rested upon so many heads and faces and figures like those with which I had been familiar in Ulster." The fighting qualities of this race have never been questioned, but its terrible courage was never more brilliantly displayed than in the battles of the late war. According to the figures given in one of these addresses, the States of Pennsylvania and North Carolina are those in which the Scotch-Irish element is the largest, and those among whose soldiers the losses in battle were the greatest. Strictly speaking, the losses of South Carolina were greater in proportion than those of North Carolina, but those of the latter State were enormous. Its fighting population in 1861 was 115,000, but it furnished to the Confederate Army 125,000 men, of whom 14,522 were killed, 5,155 died of wounds—not including the wounded who did not die in service—and 20,602 died of disease. Pennsylvania had the highest percentage of killed, on the Union side, viz. 7.1 per cent. of enrolled troops. The Twenty-sixth North Carolina Regiment was pitted at Gettysburg against the One Hundred and Fifty-first Pennsylvania and Cooper's Battery, and out of over 800 men lost all but 216 in the first day's battle, and after the third day mustered only 80 men. The Pennsylvania Regiment lost 335 men. The loss of the Light Brigade at Balaklava is stated to have been about 32 per cent.

Falling in Love; with Other Essays on More Exact Branches of Science. By Grant Allen. D. Appleton & Co. 1890. 8vo, vi., 356 pp.

IN this little volume Mr. Allen has gathered twenty-one essays contributed to the *Cornhill*, the *Fortnightly*, and *Longman's Magazine*. He is well known to readers of periodical literature as a skilled purveyor of the ideas of modern science and the facts of biology, neatly enfolded in a literary coating enlivened by a spice of humor. While a critical specialist might take exception here and there to a minor statement of fact, or to the broad and easy treatment of difficult subjects affected by Mr. Allen, he would hardly deny that, on the whole, the essays in question perform a work of great usefulness. Such intermediaries between the technical statements of the investigator and the curiosity of the lay reader are none too numerous. Of the small band who perform this public service, the writer of these essays is especially well qualified from a literary point of view, and we are glad to recognize the unusual measure of success which has attended his efforts to instruct and interest the general reader. The articles here reprinted will be practically new to the majority of Americans. Though of varying degrees of merit, literary or scientific, none of them are dull, and they are free from really important errors of fact. While the professional naturalist will perhaps prefer something more exact and profound, the average man will find his profit, not unmixed with pleasure, in an hour or two devoted to Mr. Allen's pages.

Life of William Ellis (Founder of the Birkbeck Schools). With some account of his writings and of his labours for the improvement and extension of education. By Edmund Kell Blyth. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1889.

WE have already reviewed at some length a life of Mr. Ellis by his granddaughter, in which his character and labors were described, and, though the present volume is more full in some respects and has much more apparent pretensions to being considered the true and complete biography, it does not add so much to our knowledge as to detain us for more than a moment. The simple and laborious character of Mr. Ellis, his singleness of purpose, his benevolent and practical nature, stand out plainly through all his career. His utilitarian interest, which became absorbed by the one cause of education, was the substance of his life; he believed that the world was to be made over only by forming the minds of the children, and instilling into them the rational grounds for the industrial virtues. To this he devoted time, money, and mind without stint. The present biography contains very full abstracts of his many writings in magazines and books and a good many letters. It brings to the fore somewhat more openly and boldly the radical element in his convictions, the grounds of his opposition to moral teachings out of the Scriptures, upon which he made many sensible observations worth attention by those who would not agree with his conclusions altogether; and all this helps to explain the opposition he met with in certain quarters because of his extreme secularism. He was a thorough Benthamite in opinion and by nature, indifferent to much of the fruits of culture, and generally to the fine arts and imaginative literature, hostile to university ideals of training, and very narrowly limited to the useful in all parts of his thought. But within his bounds he was clear-sighted and able, entirely self-devoted to the good of mankind as he understood it, and sagacious in the practical unfolding of his plans. He was in some degree a speculative and experimental educator, a seeker for new lines, and hence his books contain suggestive ideas and interesting records of experience which make this abstract of them of real value to educators who are not hidebound conservatives. The biography is thus to be regarded as being as much a tract to spread his views as an account of a noble and useful career.

The Castellated and Domestic Architecture of Scotland, from the Twelfth to the Eighteenth Century. By David MacGibbon and Thomas Ross, architects. Vol. III. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1889. 8vo, pp. xvii., 639.

IT is pleasant to receive the continuation, in the third volume, of Messrs. MacGibbon and Ross's book, of which the beginning we noticed some years ago. When the course of a people's architecture can be as clearly followed as in Scotland, there is no plainer witness to the growth of its civilization. Scotland never prospered, like most European nations, so as to efface the architectural testimony to her small beginnings. Her record is of hardship more than of splendor. It shows how the early feudal lord (here as indeed elsewhere) hived his family in his stately castle as the poor are hived nowadays in tenement-houses; and how, in spite of a command of personal service which is now unknown, and the abounding delights of feasting, hunting, and hacking one another to pieces, comfortable living was reserved for these late days. The contrast of Scotland's transitory prosperity in the thirteenth century with her long blight under the English wars of the fourteenth is imaged in the shrinkage from the ampler early castles to the cramped security of the Norman keeps, which superseded them here after being themselves superseded in more prosperous England, and in the cessation of church-building for two centuries while the rest of Europe was blossoming into churches like a field of daisies.

These conditions, and the slow recovery of the country in the sixteenth century, the returning prosperity of the Stuart reigns, are well outlined in the introduction of this volume, and confirmed by the examples which follow. There are not so many important examples as in the first two volumes, but the architectural story is told with the same faithfulness, the same intelligence, the same abundant and clear illustrations. The fourth volume, of which the contents are given in the present, holds in reserve many buildings of architectural and historical interest, and promises to end well a work which is exhaustive, and in its way final.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bigelow, J. William Cullen Bryant. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Clutterbuck, W. J. The Skipper in Arctic Seas. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
Fothergill, Jessie. A March in the Ranks. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Gurrin, T. E. Hossfeld's New Spanish Reader. N. Y. School-Book Clearing House.
Haskell, T. N. Young Konkaput, the King of the Utes. Denver: Collier & Cleaveland.
Hogarth, D. G. Devia Cypria: Notes of an Archæological Journey in Cyprus in 1888. London: Henry Frowde.
Lane-Poole, S. Thirty Years of Colonial Government: A Selection from the Despatches and Letters of the Right Hon. Sir George F. Bowen. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $10.50.
Maclehose, Sophia H. Tales from Spenser, chosen from the Faerie Queene. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Momerie, Prof. A. W. Church and Creed. T. Whittaker. $1.50.
Newton, Rev. W. W. Dr. Muhlenberg. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Noel, Capt. E. The Science of Metrology; or, Natural Weights and Measures. London: Edward Stanford.
Ritter, F. L. Music in America. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.
Rockwood, Caroline W. A Saratoga Romance. Funk & Wagnalls.
Rolleston, T. W. Prose Writings of Thomas Davis. London: Walter Scott.
Sessions, F. C. On the Wing through Europe. Welch, Fracker & Co. $1.25.
Shaw, G. B. Fabian Essays in Socialism. London: The Fabian Society, 63 Fleet St.
Shenfield, S. P. The New Prodigal. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Skrine, J. H. A Memory of Edward Thring. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Sladen, D. B. W. Australian Poets, 1788-1888. Cassell Publishing Co, $2.
Sloane, T. O'C. Facts Worth Knowing. Hartford: S. S. Scranton & Co.
Steele, G. M. Rudimentary Psychology. Boston: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.

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Fine Arts.

EXHIBITION OF THE AMERICAN WATER COLOR SOCIETY.

THE average of technical excellence rises steadily at the exhibitions of the Water-Color Society. In the present exhibition, if we take the pictures on the line, almost everything is creditable, except that there are always pictures on the line, by one right or another, that ought not to be placed there, and there are always some over doors and other high places that ought to be down. Seven or eight years ago there were about half-a-dozen pictures in each exhibition that were picked out and spoken of everywhere as "good things" or "fine water-colors," and there was much to pass by between them. Now we find not half-a-dozen such pictures merely, nor a dozen even, but thirty or forty, and most of the rest are so much better than they used to be that there is scarcely any comparison to be made.

But though technical excellence is much more general, a good deal of fault can still be found with American water-color painting. For one thing, there is apparently a widely prevailing belief that a water-color may be made of anything that comes handy, regardless of the fitness of the subject or motive for treatment in this particular medium. An old study in oil that has never been finished, and that never will be finished unless the painter means to go back to the place where he worked at it and finish it on the spot where he can get his facts from nature, is made to do service for a picture in water-color; for whatever is wanting in the oil study can be left vague in the water-color, and washes and blotches of pretty tints fill up the doubtful places. At least some of our painters must proceed on such a principle, and there is too much of that sort of incomplete work in the exhibitions. Not that everything should be made out, but accuracy and truth are necessary, and no really good work is without them. The truth need not be given in detail, but it must be given. The most charming water-colors, perhaps, are those in which it is suggested only, but in these, if they are good, nothing but the truth *is* suggested. Large pictures are better painted in oil, for it is easier to arrive at exact truth in values in this medium; and when it comes to making a picture "hang together" by working over to remedy faults of form or color, it may be done easily enough in oil, whereas in water-color most of the charm of the medium—which consists in frank, simple tints—is marred by such processes, if, indeed, it is not altogether lost. Not every landscape effect lends itself to successful treatment in water-color, though many are admirably suited to it, and sombre interiors cannot be so well painted in it as light ones, the followers of the modern Dutch painters to the contrary notwithstanding. No painter is cleverer in his way than Vibert, and his water-color pictures of interiors with figures are very skilfully worked out. He paints such subjects far better than any of our painters could paint them, yet doubtless there are few among them who would care to paint as Vibert does. Good drawing and careful painting will not alone make a good water-color, least of all when it is applied to a subject that is not suitable. Jacquemart, the well-known etcher, who died a few years ago, was one of the ablest of painters in water-color. His pictures were never carried very far, but the effect of nature was always faithfully rendered, and there was a never-failing charm in the direct, simple way in which it was noted on the paper. He never elaborated detail, and never blurred and scoured his paper for "effects." There are some pictures in this exhibition that resemble the work of Jacquemart in general treatment; those by Mr. Hassam and Mr. Wiles may be mentioned particularly.

Another fault in American water-color work as it is seen at the exhibitions at the Academy is triviality—both in subject and treatment. Light, sketchy work is not trivial *because* it is light and sketchy, but there are many pictures here that aim to be light and sketchy and are only tame and thin. This is the fault of insufficient skill in handling the medium, and of a timidity that causes the painter to stop without entirely realizing his first intention. The triviality of subject is even more apparent. The upper part of the walls is covered with landscapes in which not two thoughts have been given to composition, and with figure pictures in which the element of grace or beauty or strikingness of pose does not enter at all. Some pictures, too, look as though they were but parts of some other composition—pieces saved out of the wreck. Many exhibitors evidently have been satisfied with trifles, and have sent them here; the lesson they have to learn is, that a bad sketch is not any the more worth looking at because it is painted in water-color than it would be if it were done in oil, and that no picture, whatever the medium it is painted in, is worth exhibiting unless it shows something intended to be done and it is well done.

Those of our painters who have in the last few years—during the period of marked progress of which we have spoken—become known as genuine water-color painters, are well represented in this year's exhibition. Messrs. Abbey, Weir, Walker, Wiles, Hassam, Tryon, Smedley, Robinson, Ross Turner, Platt, and Day are some of these, but there is nothing from the one who is best known of all, Mr. Homer, who has, however, made an exhibition of his sketches in the gallery of a well-known dealer.

No painter surpasses Mr. Wiles in dexterity, and if his eye for color were only a little stronger, we should rarely have a fault to find with his work. "On the Coast of the Mediterranean," No. 37, is deficient in color quality, though it is very skilfully painted; and in the large picture, "The Convalescent," No. 393, representing two young girls in a pretty interior, color is not the chief merit. It is sufficiently colored, however, to be satisfying, and it is as well painted as anything in the galleries. But in a smaller picture, "In the Heat of the Day," No. 7, Mr. Wiles is successful in every respect, and this little bit of waterside, with the pavilions on the bank and the launch and row-boats anchored in the stream, is delightful. It might well be taken as an example of right water-color work, and it is to be hoped that we shall see more and more in the exhibitions with the same intention.

Mr. Hassam's methods resemble those of Mr. Wiles, though each is distinctly individual. Nothing could be better in its way than Mr. Hassam's "Paris and the Eiffel Tower from Montmartre," No. 262; and of the five or six other pictures contributed by him, all are excellent in every way, except "A Bit of New York," No. 641, and it is a figure of a man with a street for a background, while the others are pictures of streets and places, and the figures do not count except as color notes. Of the others—"Wet Night on the Boulevards," No. 363; "Under the Obelisk—Thames Embankment," No. 301; "Along the Seine—Bougival," No. 91, and "The Bathing Hour, Broadstairs, England," No. 640—it may be said that no better water-colors have ever been seen in these exhibitions, and that the artist gives proof of such ability and cleverness as a water-color painter that he is entitled to a place in the first rank of those who are already distinguished. Not the least charm in them is their freshness and truthfulness of color. As in Mr. Wiles's work, the method is expressed in two words—frankness and simplicity.

No better illustration of what a delightful thing a water-color sketch may be, if it is painted by a man who is at home in the use of the medium, could well be found than Mr. Blum's "Sketch of a Venetian Bead-Stringer," No. 275. The movement of the girl with her arm extended above her head is well given, the action of the figure is admirably suggested, and it is an agreeable color study. Technically, it is of the cleverest work to be seen, and to artists it is one of the most interesting of the pictures here.

"Peasant Woman Baking Bread," No. 335; "A Barn-Yard," No. 364; "Evening," No. 482, and "A Pastoral," No. 424, are the titles of the four pictures exhibited by Horatio Walker, and there are particular qualities in each of them well worthy of notice. "A Pastoral," however, is so characteristic of Mr. Walker's methods, and is such a fine piece of color and so complete a work, that it will suffice to speak of it alone. "A Pastoral" has for its subject three fat and lazy pigs that have come across the pasture lot, on a fine, sunny day, to lay themselves in the ditch. Mr. Walker paints excellent landscapes and cattle and sheep and horses, but he paints pigs better than any of these. Nobody anywhere, indeed, can paint pigs better than he. This little water-color is like a Millet in its homely truth and unaffected simplicity: the pigs are real pigs, and that they are lazy, existence-loving pigs is plain enough. The picture is admirable in characterization, and soundly painted. It does not belong to the class of work of which Mr. Hassam's or Mr. Wiles's pictures are types, but is one of those in which color is sought for by more intricate processes than in the clear washes used by these painters. It is perfect in its way.

"The Visitors," No. 434, by E. A. Abbey, which shows two pretty English girls in prim bonnets and gowns seated in chairs in the garden in front of a country-house of the last century, possesses much of the charm that is found in the artist's pen drawings that have made him famous. It is a notable instance, in an exhibition where there is so much that indicates shallowness of purpose, of a work that has been seriously composed. It is cleverly painted, and though full attention is given to detail, the ensemble is well kept, and the picture is harmonious and complete. A delightful little picture, and an apt example of technical skill properly displayed, is "Sweetheart," No. 190, by Albert E. Sterner; and a well-drawn and delicately painted little figure is the girl in a blue-check skirt aiming a carbine, "Shooting at a Mark," No. 156, by Theodore Robinson. Mr. Robinson also, among other things, exhibits a "December Landscape," No. 176, that is a fine bit of color, and an effect in nature realistically but tenderly treated. Mr. Tryon's landscapes, Nos. 171, 353, and 470, are noticeable, and there is an excellent winter scene, "Northern Winter," No. 467, by Jervis McEntee, that must be mentioned as the best among the snow pictures. It possesses one very important element that is lacking in much of the landscape work in the exhibition—the element of character, which is as essential in a landscape as it is in a portrait. Character

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is a quality that we always find in Mr. Smedley's pictures, and in "A Thanksgiving Dinner," No. 442, "A Late Arrival," No. 313, and "By a Summer's Sea," No. 451, this is the chief merit. The composition of the first-named picture is not of the hap-hazard order—on the contrary, it is well thought out; but it is more the composition of an illustration than of a picture—a difference which lies in the fact that the impression of things as they actually look in nature without presenting them solely to the spectator's point of view is essential to the first, and that in the second the composition should be made with this point of view as the only one to be considered.

The pictures by J. Alden Weir, G. W. Maynard, H. Bolton Jones, H. W. Ranger, J. Francis Murphy, Ross Turner, Mrs. Rosina Emmet Sherwood, C. A. Platt, Francis Day, C. H. Eaton, Carleton Wiggins, D. M. Bunker, C. Y. Turner, W. S. Bucklin, Stanley Middleton, C. E. Cookman, E. L. Durand, Clark Crum, C. Morgan McIlhenney, Edward A. Bell, Charles Mente, Percy Moran, and Alexander Schilling, may be mentioned as among those which form the bulk of notable works in the present exhibition. This is the twenty-third annual exhibition of the Society. The rooms are tastefully decorated, as usual; the hanging is done by groups, according to the tone of the pictures and the color of the borders, and, by a happy innovation, no pictures at all are placed in the corridor. The illustrated catalogue contains a number of well-printed photographic reproductions, as well as pen drawings; but the book is not quite what the catalogue of this pretty exhibition ought to be.

MODERN WOOD-ENGRAVING.

THE Grolier Club is constantly doing something towards enlightening the public concerning the various arts and industries to which it stands as a nerve-centre. Having just held an exhibition of "Books and prints illustrating the origin and rise of wood-engraving," in which was shown a complete progression from the work of the "Formschneider" to the sudden burst of the great art of Albert Dürer, it now supplements that lesson with an exhibition of the work of some of our best-known engravers. Between the first exhibition and the present one, to be sure, there is a hiatus, in the order of production, of more than three hundred years; but, as that period is covered by a partial decadence, and subsequently by the revival of Bewick, about which much has appeared in current literature, it may be assumed that most of those who will be attracted by the subject can supply for themselves the historical omission, and thereby derive the full advantage of the Grolier Club's contribution to the study.

The present collection has been made under the auspices of the Society of American Wood-Engravers, and consists of 258 prints, 101 of which constitute the exhibit by which the Society was represented at the Paris Exposition. On entering the hall in the pretty little club-house where these prints are shown, one is impressed by the entire suitableness of the surroundings. The pictures themselves almost seem conscious of the more than favorable conditions for their appreciation, and take on an hospitable appearance. The show-cases are ranged along the sides of the room, convenient for the examination of their contents. One can read these pictures as he reads a book, going to his favorites over and over again, never tiring of what they say to him. They reveal, for one thing, the strong individuality in the work, which is somewhat surprising after all that has been written concerning the loss of this very quality by the modern engraver through the commonly great reduction of his subject, consequent upon the use of photography in transferring it to his block, and the finikin methods made necessary by this process. We look here in vain for evidences of such disaster; in fact, one of the charms displayed is this strong personal quality in workmanship, and another is the great value of its diversity to the entire collection. It is doubtful if we should wish to prolong our examination greatly if these prints were the result of one man's effort, however skilful, or that of a number of men who worked just alike. Even the interest one might feel in the variety of painters and draughtsmen would be greatly neutralized by uniformity of interpretation; whereas, here one feels a new delight with the discovery of a different translation of any given artist. There are, no doubt, several groups into which these workmen may be divided, as, from sympathy or schooling, a number may adopt similar means of reaching a result; but there is not an instance where personal expression is not distinctly marked.

In these show-cases are to be found the most of the work of Mr. Timothy Cole after the old Italian masters, now being published in the *Century Magazine*. Although these are printed on simple plate paper (a considerable disadvantage as compared with the surrounding "Japan" proofs), one is impressed by the reverential attitude of the engraver towards his "originals," and the consummate skill with which his devotion is expressed. Cole denies himself no advantage to be derived from any modern method of working, but his line is his main dependence, and it is sufficient for his need. It is marvellous that with the simple line he can sustain such pure tones, or make such nice gradations; that, with a line so close as in many of these pictures, he should remain so light and appear so strong.

The general view of the exhibition makes it apparent to what an extent the American engraver is limited by the magazine page. By far the largest portion of these pictures are illustrations which have appeared in the *Century*, *Harper's*, or *Scribner's* magazines. This fact is accountable for much that appears finical in the work of the American engraver to his fellow-craftsmen dwelling in countries where there is greater variety in the dimensions and quality of the work to be obtained. Notwithstanding want of appreciation on the part of the foreign engraver for this small work, it has obtained ample recognition from the foreign press and the foreign artist. As far as it goes it is complete, and has a bigness of its own which bears no relation to square inches. Standing half-way across the hall, one is struck by the distinctness with which he sees the whole intent of these subjects, although reduced to eight inches by five, and the expression of little faces. A closer examination would seem impertinent; nevertheless it discovers other charms worth seeking. But it is not from choice that the American engraver confines his efforts to narrow limits; it is his misfortune that the magazines by which his art has been fostered and encouraged in making what advancement it has, remain the only field for its practice; no avenues opening for progress in any other direction.

The recognition of the fact, by some of our engravers, that every art ought to be self-dependent, has led them to do something on their own account, purely for the sake of art, and depend for remuneration upon the sale of prints; and the evidences of this effort on their part rise above the cloud of pretty illustration like a bow of promise to the future of wood-engraving. All the large pictures on these walls, save two engraved by King for *Harper's Weekly*, are owned by the engravers themselves, and were done with the sole purpose of advancement as stated. First of all are the prints of the Portfolio published three years ago, for the Society, by the Harpers. These pictures, twenty-five in number, form the backbone of the Paris exhibit, and, as placed here, run through its entire length, binding it together and sustaining it at a high artistic level. Then comes Kingsley, who is represented by "Silence," after W. B. Baker, "The Old Mill," after J. F. Murphy, "Midsummer," after Daubigny, and "Historic Ground in the Connecticut Valley," and "In the Harbor," both from original paintings. Kruell has his four portraits of Darwin, William Lloyd Garrison, and Wendell Phillips, which were noticed in these columns on their exhibition at the Century Club last month. Miss Powell has "The Resurrection," after La Farge; and French "A Christmas Vigil," from an original. These prints are all of considerable size. Besides these are "The Spring Time of Love," and "White Birches" by Miss Cooper; a landscape by Dana; and "Mrs. Siddons," after Gainsborough, by Johnson, which are only less in dimensions, the merits being quite equal to those of the larger pictures, and the purpose the same, namely, to break through an outgrown environment.

Another hopeful sign here observed is the amount of original work, where painting and engraving are done by one person. Some of this is of great excellence. There is scarcely a better thing in the exhibition than No. 58, an original by French. It were useless to mention each particular contribution to this interesting and beautiful display. They are all included in the general excellence. Notable features are the strength shown by Kingsley's large work and the delicacy of Kruell's, the etcher's quality that seems to grow upon Johnson, and some of King's large work.

The Society of American Wood-Engravers should learn, from the success of the present exhibition, the value, as an educational force in their interest, of establishing in some fitting institution of this city a permanent exhibit of their work, for there are many people who have yet to comprehend the great beauty of their art.

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